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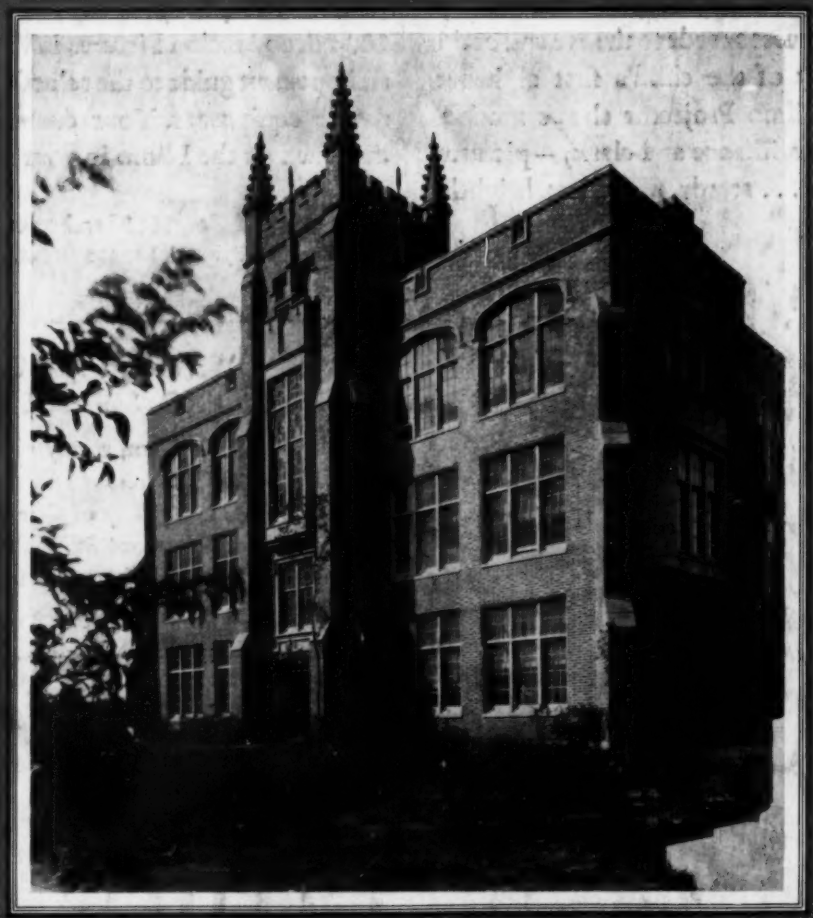


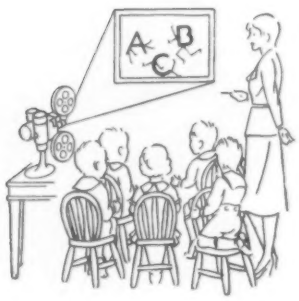
JANUARY 1931

VOL. VII No. 1

Published by THE NATION'S SCHOOLS PUBLISHING CO., *Chicago.*

AR v.7 Jan.-June 1931

If we taught the ABC's by



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In bold, clean-cut letters the alphabet is first revealed to the child. Form and visibility are the prime requirements. These are also prime requirements in teaching with motion pictures, whether in the kindergarten or the graduate school. And they are met, generously, in the Filmo Projector.

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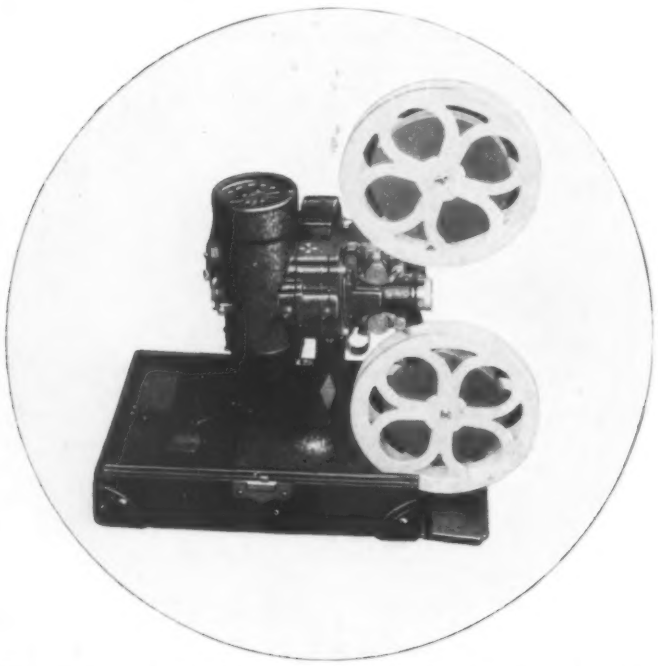

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3. Simplicity of Operation
4. Superior "Still" Projection
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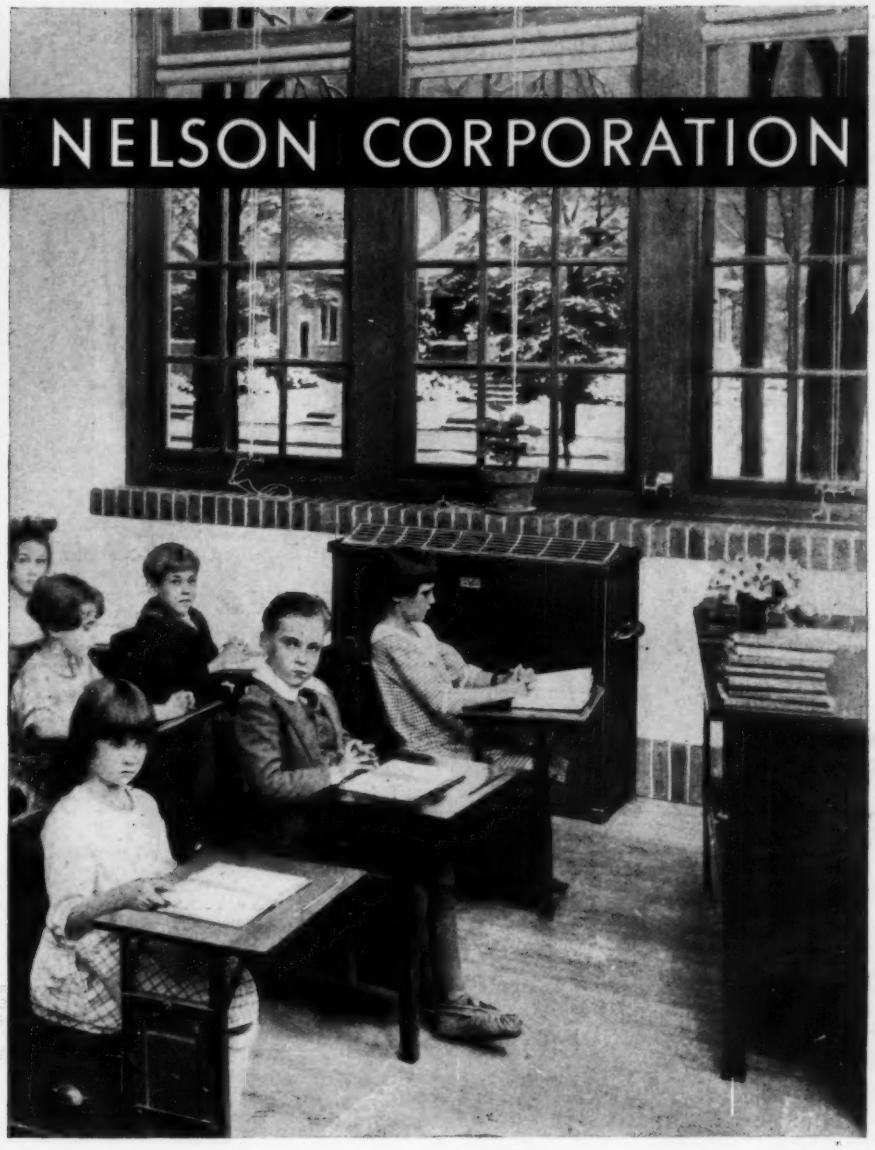

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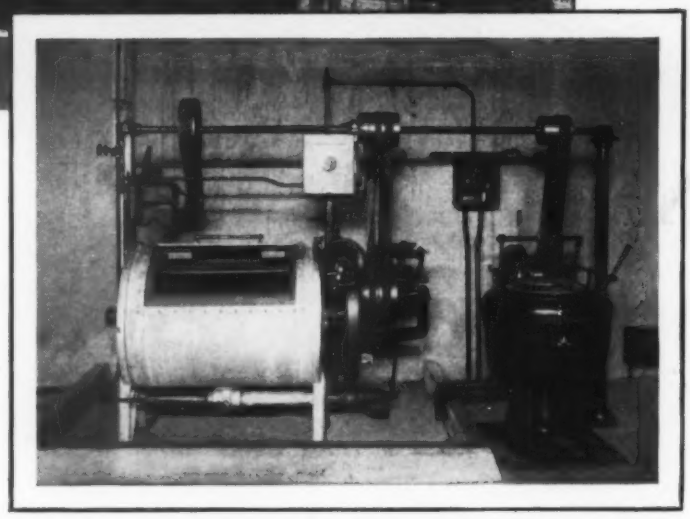

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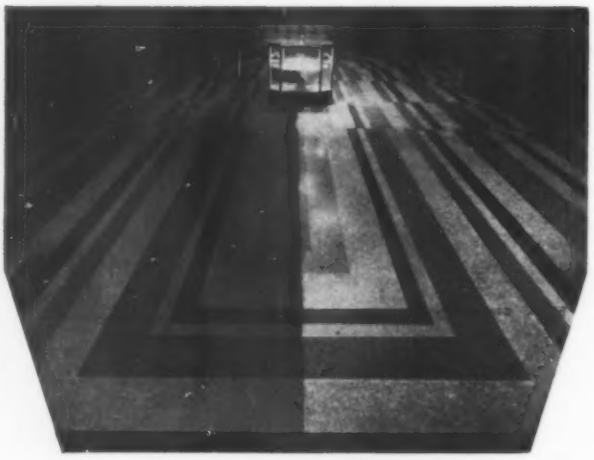

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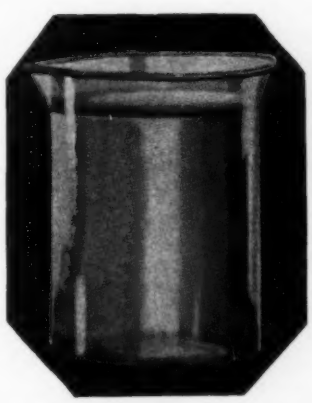
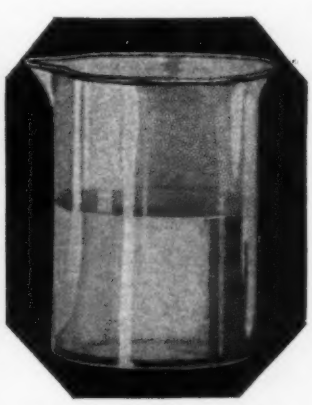
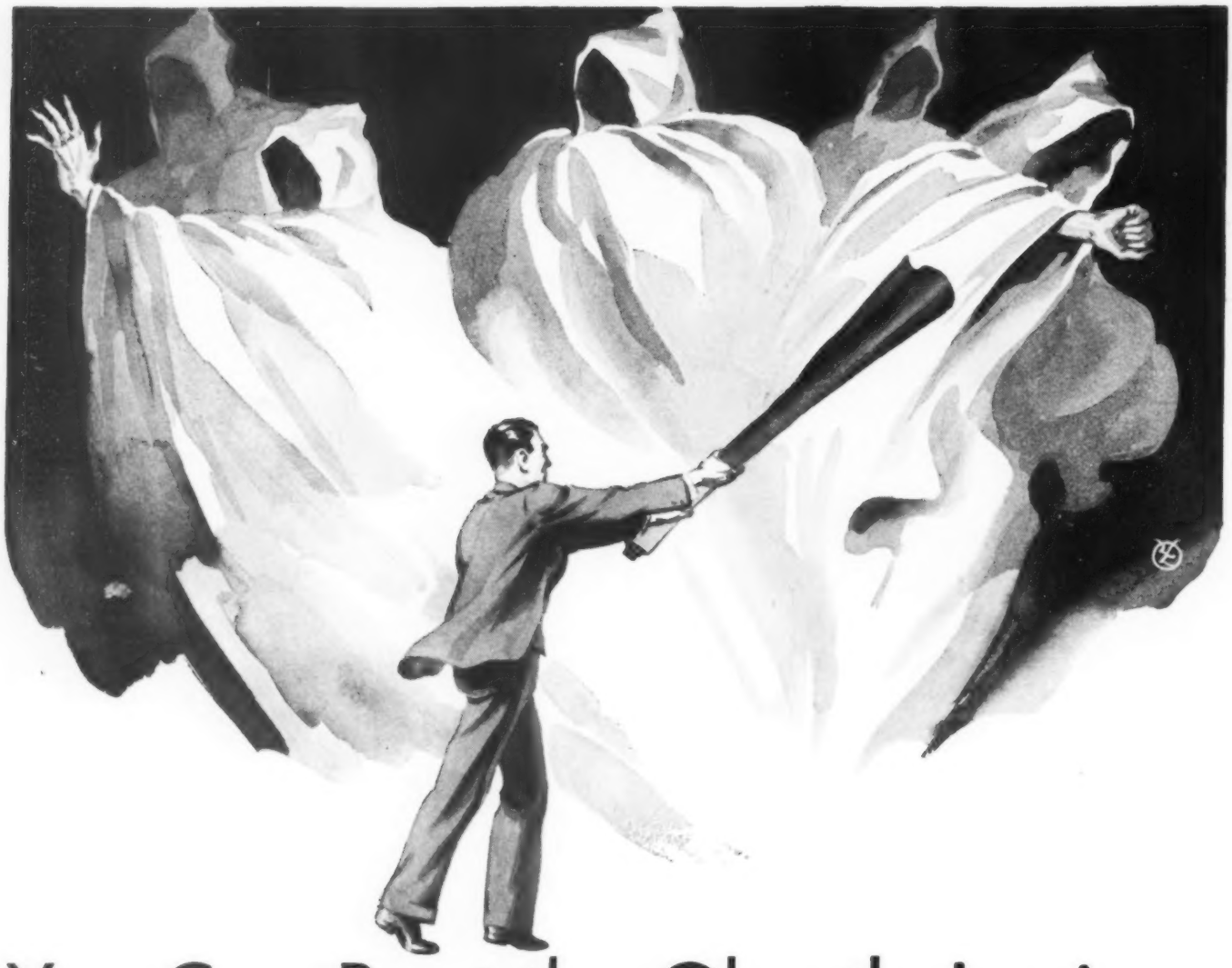


Used in correct proportions, Soilax forms a green wash solution.



But—when too much is used the solution automatically turns yellow —what a safeguard against waste!



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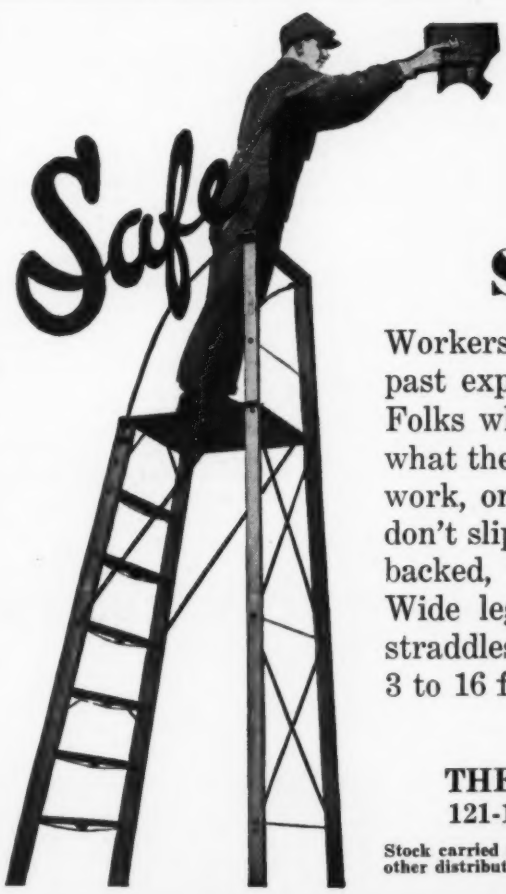

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(Patented)

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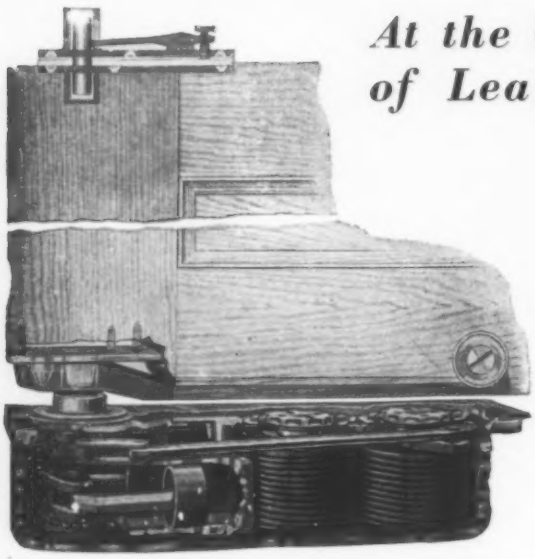
At the Gates of Learning



No puny device can control the big exterior doors of your school today, tomorrow, and on into its ivy-covered old age. If ever a floor check gets hard service it is on school doors.

Thus, it will be wise to ask your architect about the heavy construction and the double-spring, double-checking action of Rixson "Thirty" and Rixson "Forty" Checks. He will explain how this means firm control *all* the way *either* way, swinging in or out. This, in turn, means an even standard of smooth performance through years of service.

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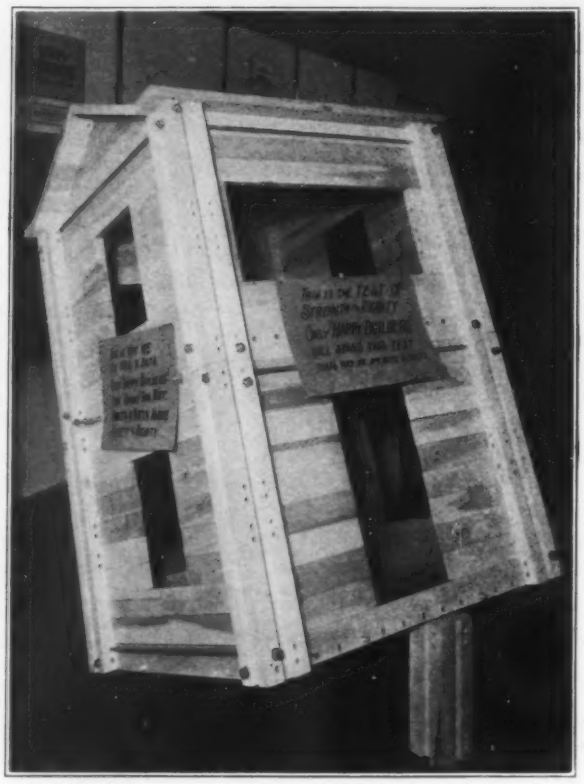

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Happy Builders make kindergarten courses worth while—by encouraging self-expression, developing imagination, leadership, observation and originality, by cultivating orderliness and the social sense; by co-ordinated training of mind and body. They are a wonderful aid to visual education, and an effective conserver of the teacher's time and energy.

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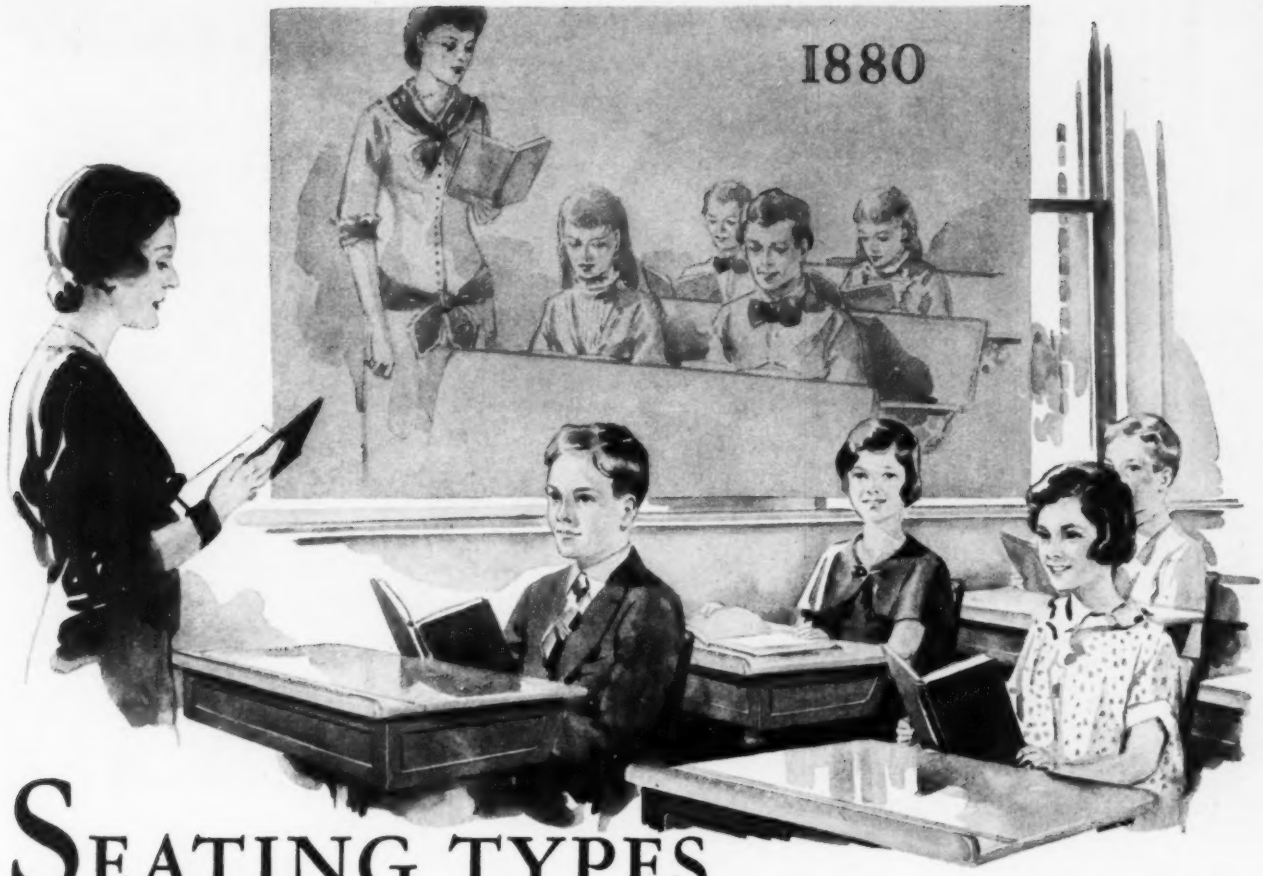

SEATING TYPES *that go back* 50 years, take 25 years off of teaching progress

IN the old days of school benches and poorly equipped teachers, it is true that pupils made progress. But it was as much the scholar as the teacher and the school . . . those who were determined to progress learned regardless of the inefficiency of teaching methods and teaching equipment.

Today, in many schools, the teacher and the classroom equipment help make the scholar. To the pupil attending those schools have come advantages unknown to you.

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Classroom seating is an example. It is not unusual to find 20 year old school seats being used in prosperous communities. Such seating may as well go back 50 years—for prior to 20 years ago the development of school seating was at a standstill. And while these seats may be good enough to sit upon . . . they are a decided handicap and deterrent to the mental and physical progress of your pupil.

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In the laboratories of the American Seating Company experts have for years concentrated their efforts on posturally correct school seating. School seats that make it easy and natural for your pupil to sit as he or she should. School seats that contribute materially to physical and mental progress. School seats that make modern teaching methods productive.

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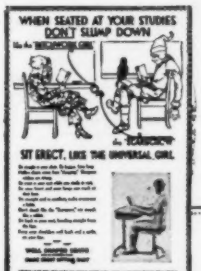

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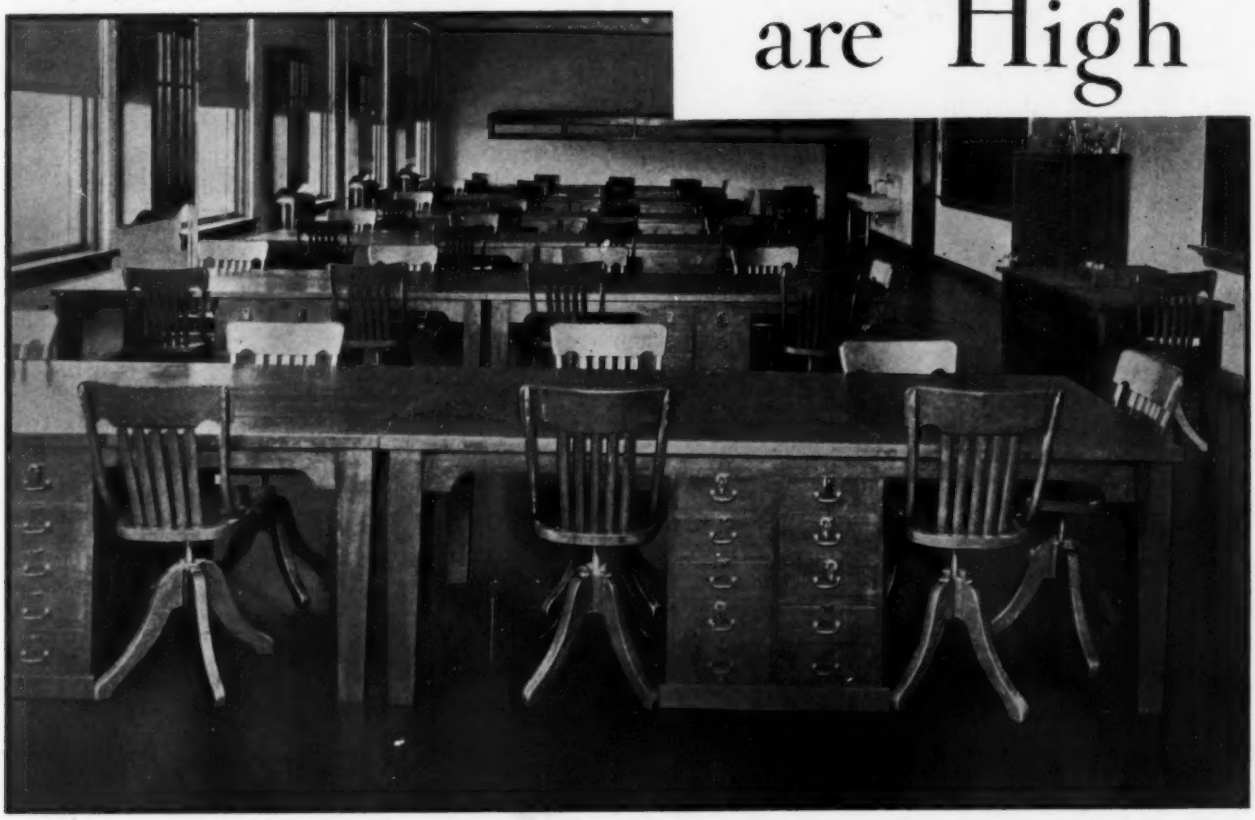

Floors of Armstrong's Plain Green Linoleum brighten the Biology Laboratories of the University of Texas at Austin. For years they will stay cheery in spite of accidents and wear.

...but this up-to-the-minute school floor cheerfully meets them all

THE school laboratory is no place for a finicky floor. Water and chemicals are bound to spill. Busy feet concentrate their wear upon the areas behind the benches. But Armstrong's Linoleum with its Accolac-Processed surface can do a hundred percent job here and in similar places.

Armstrong's Linoleum Floors are spot-proof, stain-proof. Spilled things will wipe right off. Breakage is reduced. Noisy feet and clattering chairs are quieted. Cleaning costs are lowered, too—for dry mopping is all the daily care necessary, and an occasional relacquering with Armstrong's Linoleum Lacquer will keep these modern floors bright and smiling.

"School floors need not be dull and drab," Armstrong Floor designers said several years ago. Psychologists agree that cheery rooms bring better grades. Now, more than four hundred colorful floor patterns are available for school use in rooms and corridors.

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I dont know much ~~~

. . . about school wardrobes, swinging blackboards, removable—non-removable coat hangers, door locker compartments, the combination teacher's rest room, bookcase and wardrobe, umbrella containers, etc., but have hopes that some day I may, as I have been earnestly creating and studying these items for some 12 years. I have had many conferences with school people, architects, and school board members and have tried to inculcate their practical ideas into these articles. This I have done with fair success! Other manufacturers of more brilliant minds feel they are able to master all these details in a year or less and don't hesitate to tell you how they do it. "Sort of" digressing from what I started out to tell you—but here it is: I have a new catalog Number 2 and it's yours for the asking, provided you promise not to put it in the waste paper basket for keeps.

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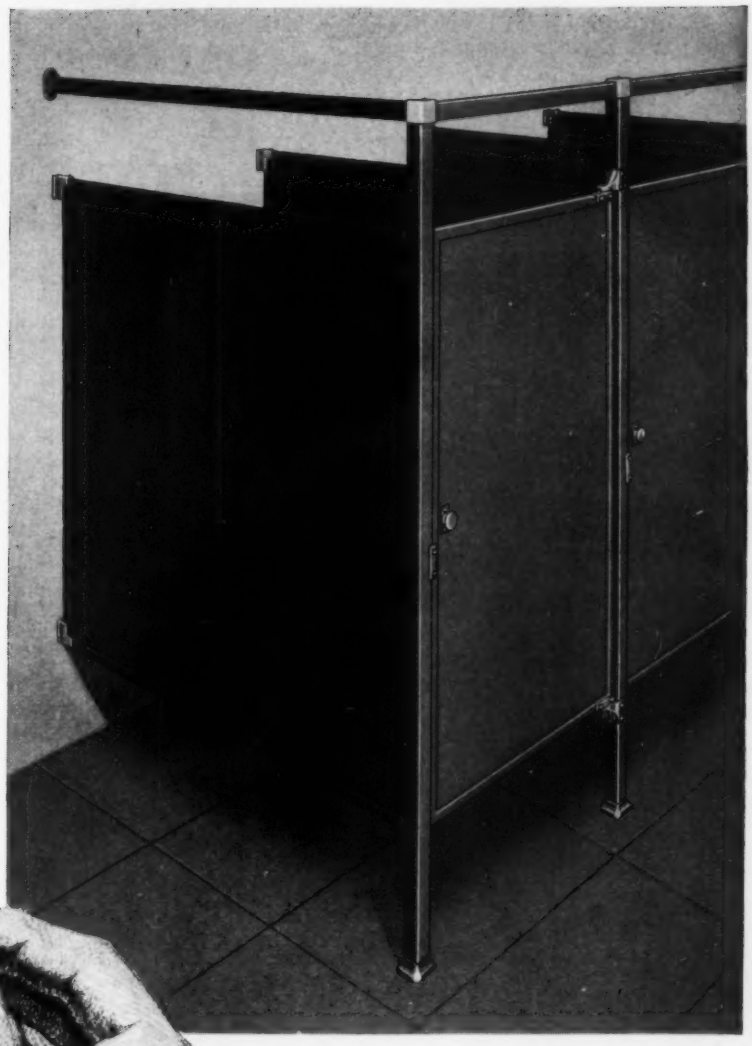
Table Tops, Fume Hoods, Shelving, Sinks



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THROWING PRECEDENT to the winds and thinking only in terms of betterment at lower and still lower prices, the design and construction of this new Mills Metal Toilet Partition is a challenge to the imagination of every buyer and to the ingenuity of him who would design better!

A design that permits for the first time panels and doors with the narrow stile so much desired for beauty and harmony of present day architecture, and without in any way sacrificing the strength, utility and sanitary features for which Mills Metal toilet partitions have always been noted.

Other outstanding features are a hinge with only two parts, entirely new type of panel clip and new wall bracket all adding to simplicity of erection and reducing cost.

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THE MILLS COMPANY

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IT COSTS LESS—

IT COSTS less to remove ashes, rubbish and garbage the efficient G&G way. 2,050 schools in 44 states are now using G&G Ash Removal Equipment because of the saving in labor and unequalled safety.

The electric models are much in demand, but hand-power models are available for smaller buildings. The Model E Electric Hoist illustrated is particularly popular. Tests have shown as many as 85 round trips for one cent current cost. Many Hoists have been in use over 20 years. We will be glad to recommend the model best suited to your needs, and to give you the names of schools in your state that are G&G equipped.

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THE DOOR NEEDS
of the
Nation's Schools

IN the modern school building the doors are an important part of construction. They must be built to withstand successfully the wear and tear of hard usage year in and year out.

Since 1855 Morgan has been building doors which have established a reputation for quality in school buildings the nation over. Builders specializing in this type of construction recognize the excellence of Morgan doors by insisting on their use.

No matter what the need, large or small, special or stock designs, Morgan can care for the door problem to complete satisfaction.

Write to the office nearest you for full information on Morgan Doors.

Write to Our Nearest Office for Your Copy of the Beautiful Catalog of Flushwood Doors

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. . . "Completely satisfied"—is the unanimous and enthusiastic verdict rendered by hundreds of school administrators who are using International Supervised Time and Program Systems. Satisfied because of the unparalleled precision and efficiency which this modern equipment brings to the handling of complex school routine.

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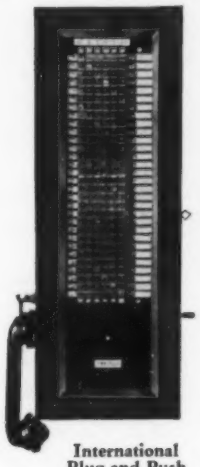

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. . . International has made such satisfying results, possible by the introduction of AUTOMATIC SUPERVISION—a distinctive electrical development that perfectly coordinates the operation of an entire system of clocks, bells, buzzers, gongs, etc., and entirely eliminates manual operation, checking and setting.

. . . Ask the nearest International Time Specialist to tell you more about this wonderful precision method of school time control.

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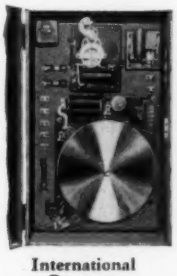

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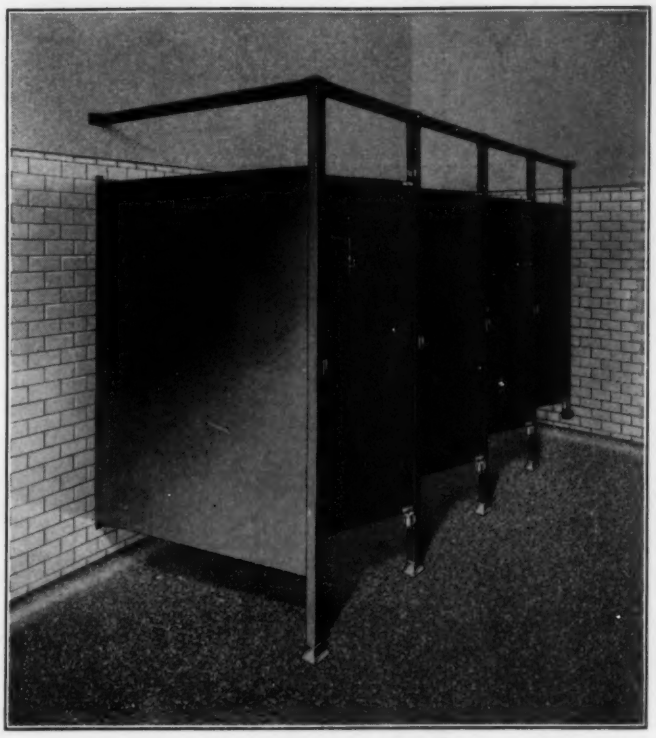

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Here is a new type of toilet partition which is well worth your consideration. Flush WEISTEEL Compartments combine the durability and price advantage of steel with the characteristics usually found in buildings where more expensive materials are used. Partitions and doors are one inch thick and there are no seams or raw edges anywhere. These new partitions are the product of an organization which, for fifty-five years, has been engaged in producing metal building products of the highest quality. With this reputation behind them you can be sure of complete satisfaction from Flush WEISTEEL Partitions. Full details will be sent upon request, or, ask your architect to look in Sweet's.

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The City College, Baltimore, Md., another of the many leading schools and universities where Bloxonend is daily proving its superiority in gymnasiums, shops and cafeterias.

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In the "Gym"..
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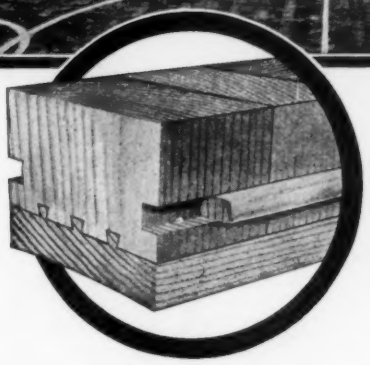

City College (shown above) is the thirteenth Baltimore school floored with Bloxonend. In the gymnasium its end-grain construction eliminates splinters and its smooth, handsome surface is unusually resilient but fast. In the shops, Bloxonend largely absorbs noise and vibration. The tough fibre ends of the wood provide a sure footing and withstand the hardest usage.

Bloxonend is made of Southern Pine with the tough end-grain up. It comes in 8 ft. lengths with the blocks dovetailed endwise onto baseboards. Lasting smoothness is assured. Its quiet, comfortable, easy-to-clean surface makes it ideal for cafeterias. Nearly all prominent school architects specify Bloxonend. Write for illustrated, informative booklet.

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The
NATION'S SCHOOLS
DEVOTED TO THE APPLICATION OF RESEARCH TO
THE BUILDING, EQUIPMENT AND ADMINISTRATION OF SCHOOLS

VOLUME VII JANUARY, 1931 NUMBER 1

Giving Battle to High Interest Money Lenders

A study of the customer's side of the small loan business made to defeat the ends of lenders who prey upon teachers in need of funds, with practical suggestions for meeting the borrowers' need

By JOHN A. McNAMARA, Executive Editor, and J. S. PARKER,
Director of Research, The NATION'S SCHOOLS

THE recent stock market crash has demonstrated that any person with financial worries on his mind cannot do justice to his job. Executives have followed with great concern those people whose minds have been fraught with worries and have found that the jobs they have been hired to do either go undone or are done very poorly indeed.

Great corporations learned this many years ago when it was brought to their attention that employees had been enmeshed in the loan sharks' nets, with the result that notices were posted in many a large shop stating that employees who borrowed from loan sharks would be instantly dismissed. In other words, it was both from a sense of moral obligation to keep the employees out of trouble and from a sound business standpoint that this measure was adopted.

It is difficult to tell or even to surmise how many teachers in the public school systems of the United States are bilked out of hundreds and thousands of dollars each year by the loan sharks. The volume of loan shark business is estimated by the Russell Sage Foundation, a social service research organization, to exceed three-quarters of a billion dollars annually.

Due to the rise and success of credit unions it is no longer necessary to take the drastic steps of instant dismissal, indeed industry has agreed that the proper manner to handle those who are compelled to borrow is to show them the intelligent methods of doing so and to educate them away from the wiles of the loan shark.

The day is not so very far past when it was considered a disgrace to borrow but in the enlightened parts of this country the fallacy of this reasoning has been proved and now the worthy teacher takes into her confidence the understanding superintendent of schools who will guide her through her difficulties.

It is certainly unnecessary that teachers should patronize loan sharks charging 20 per cent a month and often higher. However, if superintendents will see it as their duty to interest themselves in the financial problems of teachers and perfect the organization of credit unions, it will not even be necessary that teachers pay the high rates permitted under the Uniform Small Loan Law which may not exceed 3½ per cent a month on the unpaid balance on loans amounting to $300 or less.

We do not presume to suggest what rate is

necessary for commercial lending agencies to charge and we are not lending our influence to assist in tearing down the Uniform Small Loan Law which has been developed by the Russell Sage Foundation to attract capital to the small loan field. However, the cultural responsibilities and financial embarrassments of poorly paid teachers practically makes it necessary that they be provided with a means of borrowing at a rate lower than it is possible for commercial agencies to lend money profitably in small amounts.

We know that the going rate of interest on small loans can and should be brought down by competition. One large concern, by reducing its charges from 3½ to 2½ per cent a month on unpaid balances, has recently thrown competition into this field and has experienced such an increase in its business that it was able to maintain a net profit of 11 per cent per annum on its employed capital.

The chief concern of superintendents of schools is to devise some means whereby the members of their official families can borrow small loans in times of stress at reasonable rates of interest, certainly not to exceed 1 per cent a month on the unpaid balance.

As this survey will show, banks in small towns do not hesitate to make loans to teachers although banks in the larger centers generally feel that it is too expensive to carry these small accounts. Credit unions are so obviously the answer that progressive superintendents who are striving for better educational facilities and a more contented teaching personnel have gone to some lengths in organizing credit unions or in seeing that they are oganized in their cities.

An Example of Usury

Here is one significant experience:

"A grammar school principal came into my office from a city not very far from Boston. He deposited a roll of receipts, which, if devoted to that altogether unpleasant purpose, would have choked a horse.

" 'I've been making payments on a loan,' he told me.

" 'I'm glad to note that you have it all paid up,' I told him.

" 'I've paid nothing on it yet. That's all interest.'

"We personally conducted the receipts through the adding machine. His payments of interest totaled fourteen times the principal sum.

"Now you know what usury is."

With these words[1] Roy F. Bergengren, executive secretary of the Credit Union National Extension Bureau, describes the pitiful case of one teacher who was caught in the clutches of a loan shark. Granted that the case is an extreme one, the fact remains that teachers are often at the mercy of high rate loan organizations. Do you doubt it? Then consider the following facts.

"Ten Thousand Small Loans" is the title of a careful study made of the small loan problem under the direction of the Russell Sage Foundation. This is the most extensive survey yet made. The book is filled with statistical material arranged in convenient tables. For example, Table 19 shows that 5½ per cent of the women borrowers were school teachers and that the percentage of Negro women school teachers who borrowed was 8 per cent of the total Negro women borrowers. Similarly, Table 17 yields the information that 2½ per cent of the men borrowers gainfully employed were engaged in professional service, and that 9 per cent of the women borrowers were engaged in professional service.

Survey Shows Teachers Need Help

Because of this situation letters were sent by The NATION'S SCHOOLS to 500 superintendents of city school systems asking for information on teachers' loans. The letter is reproduced herewith:

"In a number of cities public school teachers who wish to borrow money to meet financial emergencies can secure funds only from loan agencies which usually charge 42 per cent per year, or from pawnbrokers.

"At the request of several school superintendents, we are conducting a survey to find out how widespread this condition is and whether teachers can successfully organize their own loan associations to operate at low interest rates.

"We'll appreciate any information you can give us concerning the teachers in your own system—approximately how many must meet financial emergencies by borrowing, how frequently they need to borrow, whether loans can be made through local banks and whether there is in operation any plan which provides for loan associations or cedit unions managed by teachers.

"Findings of this study will be made available to the entire field through our magazine, and your cooperation will help all teachers and administrators."

Although replies show considerable variance caused chiefly by such differences in local conditions as salary scales, type of community (residential, suburban, industrial or metropolitan) and similar factors, the evidence that teachers often need financial help is conclusive.

Typical of many school systems that reported

[1]Bergengren, Roy F., Riding the Credit Union Circuit, Survey Graphic, Nov. 1, 1930, p. 137.

is East Chicago, Ind. John G. Rossman, superintendent of schools, became so interested in this question that he sent a subsidiary questionnaire to all teachers. Out of 102 who replied, 56 indicated that they had borowed at some time within the past five years. Of these, 29 borrowed from banks in East Chicago, 2 from home banks, 1 from a loan company, 1 from his family and 1 from a life insurance company. Length of loans ran 30, 60 and 90 days in most cases. But the number of times teachers were forced to borrow during the five-year period is especially interesting. Distribution of the 56 borrowers as to number of loans made by each is as follows: one loan, 18; two loans, 13; three loans, 4; four loans, 7; five loans, 4; six loans, 1; ten loans, 3; twelve loans, 1; several loans, 2; number of loans not stated, 3. Although naturally the number of borrowers is greatest for one loan and two loans, the comparatively large number who had frequently to borrow more is significant.

Lost— $5,000,000

Average amount of each loan to teachers	$200
Number of teachers	900,000
Number of teachers who borrow (reckoned at 10 per cent of total)	90,000
Amount borrowed by teachers each year	$18,000,000
Interest on teachers' loans at 42 per cent per year	7,560,000
Interest on teachers' loans at 30 per cent per year	5,400,000
Interest on teachers' loans at 12 per cent per year	2,160,000
Saving in interest if 12 per cent rate is used instead of 42 per cent rate	5,400,000
Saving in interest if 12 per cent rate is used instead of 30 per cent rate	2,240,000

From the replies received, based mostly on superintendents' impressions of the local situations, it may be conservatively stated that in most school systems an average of about 10 per cent of the teachers must borrow at least once each school year. In some cities bank credit based on collateral or on notes is available to all teachers who need to borrow. In others, teachers borrow from commercial loan companies. In many cities, teachers are so secretive that exact information cannot be secured. It is reasonable to assume that a certain proportion of teachers in such cities are paying exorbitant interest rates for money loaned to them.

In 1929 a study[1] was made of the small loan situation in New Jersey. Data gathered in this study substantiate the belief that teachers borrow more frequently than is usually realized. For example, educators who were employers or self-employed comprised only eleven-hundredths of one per cent of the borrowers, and borrowed only twelve-hundredths of one per cent of the total amount borrowed. But teachers comprised 1.36 per cent of the total number of professional employees who borrowed. These teachers borrowed 1.77 per cent of the total amount and the average sum borrowed by teachers was $221.98. The percentage of teachers was greater than that of any other division among the 838 professional employees included in the sample. Among the divisions were the following: accountants and auditors, architects, clergymen, technical engineers, judges, lawyers, musicians and statisticians.

Major reasons given for seeking loans by professional employees are given in order of their importance: current expenses, such as Christmas gifts, clothing, coal, furniture and house furnishings, moving expenses and rent, repairs on automobile, repairs on home, travel and vacation, wedding expenses and household expenses; expenses arising from illness or death, such as funeral expenses, confinement expenses and other payments to physicians, dentists and hospitals; combination of purposes; business expenses; to assist friends or relatives; miscellaneous reasons.

In addition to these general reasons, teachers have two specialized reasons for seeking loans—payment of summer school fees and payment of travel expenses. In a definite sense both these purposes may be considered professional tools, which advance the professional ability of the teachers. Several school superintendents report that they solve these problems by paying salaries in twelve or twenty-four installments and by arranging loans that cover the needs of such summer activities.

But in spite of all such local solutions, the fact remains that in many cities teachers need to borrow from low interest organizations and cannot do so. Our study proves conclusively that teachers confronted with this problem can solve it best by the organization of credit unions or loan associations operated by teachers themselves. A credit union is a cooperative society organized un-

[1]King, Willford Isbell, The Small Loan Situation in New Jersey in 1929, published by the New Jersey Industrial Lenders' Association, Trenton, 1929.

der a state law within a specific group of persons for the twofold purpose of supplying the members of that group with a plan of systematic saving and of making it possible thereby for them to solve their own credit problems at a legitimate rate. There are credit union laws in 32 states and the plan of organization is uniform.

The Rise of Credit Unions

Credit unions have enjoyed a phenomenal growth in recent years. There are now more than 1,100 credit unions with more than 250,000 members. Fifteen years ago all credit unions had combined assets of only $500,000; now they have combined assets of $45,000,000. Total loans now approximate $60,000,000. There are more than 25 credit unions among railway employees, and more than 200 societies with more than 40,000 members among postal employees. The chief groups represented among existing credit unions are as follows: industrial groups, 40 per cent; government agencies and public utilities, 30 per cent; labor unions, 5 per cent; communities, 20 per cent; miscellaneous (including teachers), 5 per cent. The credit unions organized among postal employees have had deposits of $2,000,000 to date, during the three years they have been organized. More than 100,000 loans involving a sum of more than $11,000,000 have been made to postal workers.

Edward A. Filene, the philanthropist who has financed the Credit Union National Extension Bureau, has summarized[1] the chief advantages of these organizations as follows:

"Because it does not have to employ a large staff to investigate the borrower and check up on his capacity to repay his loan, because its officers serve without pay or at low salaries, because expensive office space and advertising are not necessary and because it does not have to pay high rates for its working capital, the credit union can operate at less cost than any other small loan agency. Because in turn costs are low, rates also can be—and are—low. The usual maximum charges on credit union loans are 1 per cent per month on unpaid balances—12 per cent per year, actual interest rates. But, it must always be remembered, the credit union borrower makes a profit on his own loan through dividends paid by the organization—in effect a sort of rebate which reduces the actual cost of his loan. In 1929, the average dividend rate of Massachusetts credit unions was 6.8 per cent."

The Credit Union National Extension Bureau operates as a disinterested public service, without charge direct or indirect for any service rendered by either its office or its field staff. Its functions are twofold—to initiate and further the enactment of credit union laws and to organize credit unions. Its work will be completed March 1, 1931, when it is anticipated that there will be enough state leagues of credit unions to warrant the organization of a national credit union league, so that thereafter the national credit union development will be directed by the credit unions on a self-sustaining basis. Seven states, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, and New York, have organized credit union leagues with at least fifty credit unions in each state. When the total number of states with credit union leagues reaches 15, a national credit union league will be organized.

As a concrete example of successful credit union organization, consider the credit unions of employees of the New England Telephone Company. Its eight branches have almost 15,000 members, or more than 70 per cent of the employees of the company. Total assets exceed $1,500,000, of which almost $1,250,000 is now out on loans to members. Paid shares of a total value of more than $750,000 are earning the employee members annually a 6 per cent return on their investment. The usefulness of the convenient banking facilities offered is evidenced by $500,000 in deposit accounts. The number of present borrowers represents 40 per cent of the employees of the company. Operation of these credit unions has practically abolished the loan shark problem. All in all, the experience with credit unions in the New England Telephone Company has been generally to the advantage of everyone concerned.

One more example of credit union operation outside the field of education may be in place—the nineteen credit unions now operated by employees of the Rock Island Railroad. On January 1, 1929, there were 2,222 employees who were members of these nineteen credit unions. Savings in these unions at that time were more than $45,000. Their loans aggregated 1,965, for an amount of more than $100,000.

Many Teachers Pay High Interest Rates

Much credit must be given to the department of remedial loans of the Russell Sage Foundation for its share in combating the work of loan sharks who prey upon the general public, including teachers, with usurious interest charges. Remedial loan societies, which in most cases are semicharitable organizations, have been established in twenty-five cities in eighteen states. Generally speaking, these organizations have not been as successful as credit unions. Regarding the prob-

[1] Filene, Edward A., The Spread of Credit Unions, Survey Graphic, Nov. 1, 1930, p. 132.

lem of teachers' loans, Leon Henderson, director of the department of remedial loans, writes:

"We have no doubt that if you are able to obtain accurate information you will find that most teachers obtain their loans from the 42 per cent companies. These companies operate under the Uniform Law which we have drafted and sponsored and it is to be found in twenty-four states. The law was designed for emergency loans by wage earners but it seems that school teachers, between terms, often require additional cash and we know that they have made great use of these licensed companies. School teachers are considered excellent risks and the loan companies have modified their usual requirements in order to accommodate them. The credit union is an ideal agency for such loans and I hope your survey will find means of encouraging the formation of such organizations."

Detroit's Credit Union Successful

Perhaps the most outstanding example of a teachers' credit union that is a successful going concern is the Detroit Teachers' Credit Union, which began to do business in May, 1926. Shares were sold to stockholders (teachers) at $10 each. The management consists of a board of nine directors and two committees (credit and supervisory) of three members each, elected at the annual meeting by vote of the membership. Each member has but one vote, regardless of stockholdings. No remuneration is given to officers nor are they allowed to borrow or to endorse notes for borrowers.

Any member may borrow up to $50 without security, but greater amounts must be secured by collateral satisfactory to the credit committee or by endorsements. Borrowers pay 1 per cent per month on unpaid balances. In addition to shareholding, which is unlimited, members may place money on deposit at 5 per cent. Shares may be liquidated or deposits withdrawn upon demand. Cash dividends of 8.4 per cent have been declared for the past four years and shares have increased in value from $10.00 to $10.35. The privilege of purchasing additional shares at par with dividends from stockholdings has been allowed. Some idea of the growth of the organization may be gathered from Table I, which shows that a total of $512,159.64 has been loaned to 940 different individuals since May, 1926. Bulletins which serve to keep the credit union and its services before the teachers are sent to the schools from time to time. The organization is broad in its scope, in that it serves all divisions of the teaching group, both teachers and administrators.

Another successful teachers' credit union is the one organized in Kansas City, Mo., which has enjoyed phenomenal acceptance during the year of its existence. Table II shows comparative balance sheet accounts and profit and loss accounts for October, 1929, and October, 1930. Growth in membership from 204 to 384, in borrowers from 33 to 188 and in personal loans from $4,307.50 to $32,837.61 are striking testimony of the popularity of the organization.

L. A. Pinkney, secretary-treasurer of the credit union, comments as follows upon the careful study that preceded its organization:

"The advisability of organizing a credit union was carefully considered for about a year before its actual organization. It was actually found, through sources of private information, that more than 200 teachers were paying high interest rates to the 42 per cent companies. Information regarding the success of credit unions in other lines of work was also gathered. Our organization was finally completed April 29, 1929, and our first loan was made May 30, 1929. There was some opposition to the organization. Some said teachers should not go into the loan business because they have no business ability. Others said that there was no need for such an organization because there were not enough teachers who would have to borrow money. Others believed that an investment in a credit union would not be safe. Still others said that if a teacher wanted to borrow he could go to his bank and get the money. All objections, however, were finally overruled and the organization was launched."

Popularizing a Credit Plan

An important factor in the success of this credit union has been the publicity given to it by the *Kansas City Teachers' Journal,* which is placed in the hands of each teacher. With the aid of this magazine the methods of operation of the credit union were laid before the teachers, who are scattered in 109 different buildings. There has been no spectacular campaign to secure members; the growth has been steady, healthy and permanent. Results to date are thus summarized by Mr. Pinkney:

"We have found some very sad cases, and the credit union has done a great service in placing these individual cases back on their feet financially. We have found teachers in the hands of loan sharks, paying in some instances as high as 85 per cent per year. In many cases loans have been made for the sole purpose of paying off a high interest loan from a 30 per cent or a 42 per cent company. We can truthfully say that we have already saved the teachers of Kansas City hundreds of dollars in interest.

"We feel that as yet we have not even begun to handle all of the loan business in our group. Teachers are more or less individualistic, and in many cases are hesitant in laying their financial problems before a committee of their own group, and would probably prefer to pay a higher rate of interest than to do so. As our credit union grows, confidence is being established, and more and more teachers are availing themselves of our service. Much of the former opposition to the organization has disappeared, because of the healthy growth of the union. Teachers do have to borrow money. This is proved conclusively by the fact that we have done a gross loan business of nearly $50,000. Business propositions, property repairs, hospital bills, medical treatment, deaths, accidents create emergencies which demand immediate financial assistance that the already limited salary cannot supply. It is my opinion that this situation is typical of any teaching group of any city in the United States."

Loans Are Repaid Promptly

To date in the experience of the Kansas City Teachers' Credit Union, not a single borrower has failed to make repayments on the loan. The first dividend amounted to 6.9 per cent, and the second probably will be 7 per cent. During the summer period the loans went far ahead of the incoming capital stock, so that officers were forced to borrow $4,000 from the bank in order to carry on their business.

In Atlanta, Ga., the teachers have also organized a credit union. It has been in operation about four years and has a membership of about ninety teachers. Approximately $2,500 of paid stock and deposits is kept loaned out to members all the time. Loans are scheduled to be paid back in ten monthly installments with interest of 1 per cent per month on unpaid balances. This credit union has been able to pay 5 per cent interest on deposits and to declare annual dividends of 7 per cent to stockholders. Each year 20 per cent of earnings has been set aside as a surplus. So great is the call for loans that the credit union lacks sufficient funds to meet all the emergency needs. The present membership comprises less than 10 per cent of the white teachers in the Atlanta system.

Two different loan funds for teachers are in operation in El Paso, Texas. The City Teachers' Association has accumulated from dues and other sources a loan fund amounting to about $1,700, which is used under the supervision of a committee on loans for teachers. No interest is charged and only meritorious cases receive consideration. A. H. Hughey, superintendent, has also accumulated a still larger loan fund which is under the trusteeship of the assistant superintendent, R. R. Jones. From this fund loans of $100 or less, for short periods of time, are made for use in emergency and distress cases among the teachers. No interest is charged on loans from this fund, which is built up by surplus tuition from summer school sessions. In El Paso grade and high school summer sessions are operated on the tuition basis, and whatever sum is left after payment of teachers is turned into the loan fund. Out of the 800 teachers in this system, from 50 to 100 are aided each year by such loans.

In Spokane, Wash., the Grade Teachers' Association has a loan fund. Fifty per cent of their dues each year has been going into this fund for a number of years and the total of the fund is now quite large. They charge interest at the rate of 3 per cent per year and have had very few losses.

In 1928 the Teachers' Association at Battle Creek, Mich., established a loan fund. The initial amount set aside was $300 and the program calls for addition of $50 each year until the fund reaches $1,000. Money may be borrowed at the rate of 5 per cent annually for the following reasons: illness, education, travel or other legitimate reasons accepted by the committee. Administration of the fund is in the hands of a committee consisting of the superintendent of schools, the president of the teachers' association, and two other members of the association.

Organizing for Teacher Relief

Glendale, Calif., is a relatively prosperous city with comparatively high salaries but even there teachers are operating their own loan fund. They have organized a Teachers' Relief Association which is managed by teachers appointed by the Teachers' Club. During the three years they have been operating they have averaged four loans a year. However, the scope of operations is definitely limited because loans can be made only in cases of illness, which is understood to include illness in the family where the teacher is the main support. The interest charge is 4 per cent per year. Loans may be extended over a period of three years and gifts are possible in cases of dire need.

A similar loan club for cases of prolonged illness is operated under the control of the Teachers' Club at New Rochelle, N. Y. In that system, the fact that teachers often return to school in September with savings accounts depleted after a summer trip abroad or in the United States, sometimes brings on financial emergencies. Old teachers are usually able to arrange for loans through the local banks; new teachers usually must secure

the endorsement of their notes by some principal or other school official of recognized standing. This assistance is given in emergency cases.

At Modesto, Calif., teachers are able to make loans from the Bay Section Council Loan Fund of the California Teachers' Association, at the nominal rate of 4 per cent per year. This council has approximately $8,000 available for loans and only $1,000 (approximately) is out on loan. These loans are only for emergency cases, such as ill health or accident coming to the teacher or one whom the teacher supports, or for the financing of summer school or other work necessary to the renewal of credentials or the holding of a position, so that the teacher's professional status and position are made secure to her.

Teachers at Trenton, N. J., recently created a welfare fund, the real purpose of which is to provide credit for teachers. This fund is managed by a committee of the Teachers' Association. William J. Bickett, superintendent of schools, Trenton, adds this significant comment: "Frankly, I believe that if you can secure any kind of an accurate survey, you will find that many teachers have allowed themselves to become victims of the loan shark group."

There is a loan association known as the Richmond Teachers' Credit Union, Inc., at Richmond, Va. This organization was begun in February, 1929. It has about $5,000 of working capital and pays its stockholders 6 per cent. Teachers are loaned money at 1 per cent per month and many teachers in the system have taken advantage of this cheaper way of borrowing money.

The Cleveland Teachers' Federation maintains an emergency loan fund for the benefit of teachers. This fund was raised originally by money paid for advertisements in the organization's *Historical Review*. It was augmented each year by donations from the teachers averaging about $1 each and totaling more than $3,000 a year. At present annual donations are not solicited because old loans are being paid so well that the fund maintains itself. Loans are made only to teachers who on account of illness are unable to work and earn money. The fund is managed by a board of trustees and the teacher must prove to the board that he is worthy of assistance. Loans are made without interest on short term notes, but regardless of the date upon which the note falls due, no request is made for repayment unless the teacher has returned to work. This fund has been in suc-

TABLE I—GROWTH IN ACTIVITIES OF DETROIT TEACHERS' CREDIT UNION

	1926	*1927*	*1928*	*1929*	*1930*
Membership, Dec. 31	45	130	326	719	1,223*
Number of borrowers	4	34	159	421	790†
Money loaned	$ 875	$9,170	$51,203	$166,067	$284,844†
Invested capital	1,403	6,218	31,057	103,058	268,000*

* As of September, 1930
† First nine months, 1930

TABLE II—COMPARATIVE MONTHLY STATEMENT, KANSAS CITY TEACHERS' CREDIT UNION

	Trial Balance			
	October, 1929		*October, 1930*	
Balance Sheet Accounts:	*Debits*	*Credits*	*Debits*	*Credits*
Cash	$ 599.52		$ 1,244.74	
Personal loans	4,307.50		32,837.61	
Shares		$4,775.00		$30,610.25
Notes payable				2,000.00
Entrance fees		51.00		40.75
Reserve fund				92.82
Undivided earnings				9.50
Profit and Loss Accounts:				
Interest		86.69		1,373.29
Fines		.38		10.52
Expense	6.05		54.78	
Grand Total, all accounts	$4,913.07	$4,913.07	$34,137.13	$34,137.13

cessful operation for a period of about six years.

Teachers of Los Angeles may borrow money at a reasonable rate of interest from the Los Angeles City Teachers' Relief Association. This organization has a small fund from which teachers may borrow a sum not exceeding $250, at 6 per cent per year. This fund is only for use in cases of illness and is not available for other emergencies.

The Oak Park Plan

Oak Park, Ill., provides three features of administration that aid elementary teachers who have financial problems. Teachers are urged to bring such problems to the official secretary of the board of education. In such cases loans are usually made by local bankers through administrative officers of the board. The board of education practically underwrites these loans. There is also a circulating contingent fund of approximately $1,200 which is available for small loans to teachers upon recommendation of the superintendent of schools. These loans are made without interest and are usually used to meet obligations incident to sickness and death in families. A group insurance plan, which at the present time includes two-thirds of the teachers employed in the elementary schools, provides for health and accident insurance which pays $25 a week for a period of twelve months. This insurance costs the teachers about $30 per year. In one instance last year a teacher received $1,000 during illness. The board of education employs a special nurse whose business it is to call upon ill teachers and to learn from them their wants, both physical and financial.

How Chicago Cares for Sick Teachers

The Chicago Teachers' Relief Society, a sick benefit organization with 7,033 members, has a bank balance of approximately $34,868, ready for members who become ill. During the last fiscal year 585 members received sick benefits, and of this number 240 received the compensation limit of $90. The annual dues are $4. In 1925 the membership was 5,986, and last year the membership was 6,588. Many gifts have been made to the society by members. During the last year checks were received from two teachers who received benefits in 1918 and in 1919 and who returned the full amount with compound interest. The society is now in better condition financially and as regards membership than at any previous time in its forty years of existence, according to Dr. C. J. Lunak, assistant superintendent of schools and treasurer of the organization. William J. Bogan, superintendent of schools, is president.

The Development of Music in Ohio Schools

There are 1,428 music teachers in Ohio, according to Edith Keller, state supervisor of music, Ohio State Department of Education. Of this number, 670 are found in county school districts, 577 in city districts, 107 in villages and seventy-five in teacher training institutions. Miss Keller said that in 1900 there were 195 instructors in music. Ten of these were in the Cincinnati schools and all the rest of the districts, save Toledo with two, had just one music teacher. To-day Cincinnati has twenty-eight teachers in music and Cleveland has 100.

Music instruction, according to Miss Keller, should do more than simply teach a child to sing. Proper music instruction should aid music appreciation, rhythmic development, creative release and skill in instrumental work. Miss Keller stressed the fact that individual differences should be taken into consideration and that all the children should have some type of music contact. She placed this aim as being more important than simply having glee club, orchestra and band work.

A County High School With a Dormitory

A county high school that provides dormitory accommodations for its pupils the majority of whom live twenty or thirty miles away is that at Bartlett, Neb., which is in the heart of a ranch country. This unusual school is described in *School Executives Magazine.*

A matron is employed at the girls' dormitory to act as supervisor, purchasing agent and bookkeeper. The rest of the work is carried on by the pupils. The boys' dormitory is across the campus from the girls'. This building is kept clean by two boys who are appointed as janitors.

The school is a normal training high school, fully accredited to the university, and ranks near the top with other schools in the state department of public instruction. The school is administered by a board of regents elected by the citizens in the county. There are four faculty members. The superintendent and his wife live in a suite of rooms in the dormitory.

Each pupil in the dormitory pays in advance fifteen cents a meal for one month. The matron buys in quantities, taking from the patrons any produce she can use and crediting them at the market price. If at the end of the year, the cost is less than fifteen cents a meal, a rebate is given.

Safeguarding the Pupil's Future With Mental Hygiene

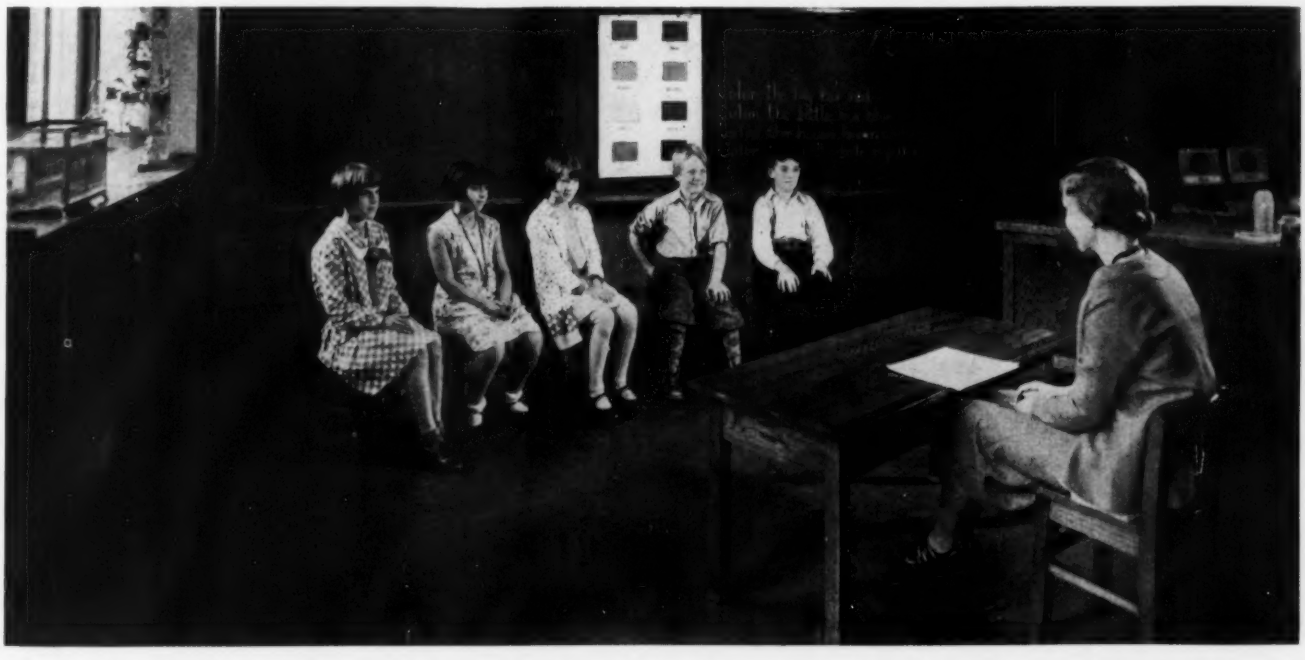
Specific adjustments are being made in many modern schools to prevent mental illness and to help more boys and girls to succeed

By JOHN G. ROSSMAN, Superintendent of Schools, East Chicago, Ind.

IT HAS recently been realized that much of the physical illness that afflicts us is preventable and that the cost of this preventable illness is enormous both to the individual and to society as a whole. Lately medical science has been focusing its attention upon prevention rather than cure. Little by little the life span has been increasing and better health has made it possible for all of us to live more happily.

As more has been learned about the human body and its reactions the conclusion has been reached that individuals and at time whole communities become mentally ill with results as disastrous as those that physical illness carries with it. Modern life, with its close contacts, its rush and hurry, and its many new problems both social and economic, brings to the individual greater stress. There are so many more opportunities for mental conflicts and mental breakdowns. A strong mental (and physical) constitution and great attention to mental health are therefore necessary for our well-being. That this is widely recognized is evidenced by the recent organization of many mental hygiene associations, by the presentation of courses in universities and popular lectures, by the publication of many hygiene magazines, by the enactment of legislation, and by the surveys being made to ascertain the causes and effects of mental illness.

To be convinced that the problem really exists we need only note the many mental misfits in any community. We have the criminal with his wrong attitude toward himself and toward society; the mentally disturbed who fit so poorly into the



Classes in lip reading rapidly transfer embarrassed handicapped pupils into normal happy individuals.

scheme of things that they must be set apart from the regular procession; the far greater number of persons somewhat socially and mentally ill, who manage to keep going but only at a price of great suffering to themselves and to their fellows, and then we find in the lives of many individuals, instabilities, sudden flare-ups, certain quirks, peculiar biases and all those things that evidence poorly adjusted personalities. Nor are these confined to adults. All of them seem to have their beginnings in childhood.

The Importance of Early Training

As in the field of medicine so in mental hygiene the most desirable practice is prevention. So little is known as yet of preventive measures in this field that the most that can be hoped for is the early detection of tendencies and their elimination. Psychologists state that the preschool period is the most significant time in a child's life, and yet each conscientious teacher feels that no small part is played by the school and the teacher in the mental health of the school pupil. It is because of the desire to prevent and correct undesirable tendencies that in progressive public schools today there are so many procedures and organizations different from those found in the school of yesterday, the school that concerned itself largely with the three R's and the pupils' study activities. It is the purpose of this article to mention just a few of the procedures that tend to make boys and girls succeed in a better way.

We know fairly well that James may be especially able in dealing with ideas and the things with which books are concerned. We find that Charles is more successful in manipulating mechanical things and in dealing with machines and things concrete. Harry's forte is not dealing with ideas but with his fellows.

There is evidence to show that these conditions are natural. There is even more evidence to show that they are conditioned by attitude and experience. The study school made provision for just one of these types. The modern school with its varied activities touches upon all of them, and not only does it succeed in presenting something that develops the bent in a particular pupil, but by this very development it establishes a favorable attitude toward all school work and thus leads to a higher level of success in all. A pupil may become enthusiastic over the school band. This enthusiasm is carried over into all of his work. Nick, who in the conventional school despises fractions, is interested in shop work. In a short time he comes face to face with a mathematical problem and goes to his arithmetic class with a desire to succeed.

In the modern city there are so few worth while things for a boy or girl to do and so many undirected hours. Because these leisure hours give the pupil more opportunity to choose his outside activities, they are significant in the child's life and influence his school work. In many modern schools pupils are spending more hours in school than previously. Thus they do not have as much time for the street and alley.

Nor is school life in the progressive school all compulsion. A pupil in the larger centers may choose orchestra, printing, nature study or week day religious instruction. In some cities he may choose to go to Saturday school or he may elect to stay away from summer school. Some parents complain of the longer hours but when asked if the children object or if they show physical strain, they almost without exception immediately reply in the negative. Frequently they state that they cannot see the reason for this longer session. They are still thinking in terms of the activities and attitudes prevailing in the study school, the school of yesterday. In the modern school, however, if the parent insists, it is possible for the pupil to have shorter hours. But for the most part, patrons approve of this longer school day and year in which wholesome activities crowd out unwholesome ones and a fine attitude is established toward better things.

Specific adjustments are now being made in many public schools to prevent mental illness and to help more boys and girls to succeed. We find the kindergarten period; a reorganization of the work of the first grade; a careful study of causes of failure; trial promotions; more flexible promotions; adjustment classes for new pupils entering by transfer and otherwise; an increase in the number of opportunity and special classes; the addition of classes for the physically handicapped; the continuance of trade school and continuation classes; the introduction of club work; "hospital classes" in the high school; the child guidance clinic, and by no means least, material readjustments in the recitation hour of the normal child.

Assuring the Pupil's Success

When Mary entered the first grade in the schools of yesterday her chance of succeeding in that grade was one in two or two in three. That is, in accordance with the official records of that first grade, 33 to 50 per cent of the pupils failed to win promotion at the end of the first year. This initial attempt accompanied by failure immediately set up wrong habits and attitudes which in many cases accompanied the pupil through life. The modern school has changed Mary's chances so that success attends her in six out of seven cases,

Kindergarten provides an excellent means of transition for the young child into that complicated thing called school.

and its ultimate program is to see that each pupil in this initial year is assured of whatever success is possible.

More pupils of four and five years of age are attending kindergarten than ever before. The kindergarten years are significant not because of the book and factual information that the pupil acquires, but because of the social contacts, the enlarging influences and the gradual introduction into this artificial thing called school.

When the child reaches the age of six, he is given a test not to determine his ability, for the majority of pupils have ability, but to determine to what extent he has made the adaptations necessary to enter into the work of the first grade. Some children respond slowly; others seem to have many more experiences and each experience registers in a significant way. Some children have one background, others, another. One of the first steps in making more pupils succeed is the recognition that such a situation exists, and that an adaptable program is desirable for their welfare.

As the pupil enters this first grade, he finds no set program to which he must adjust himself or fail. As rapidly as the teacher thinks advisable and as the child is able, he proceeds. In some cases he does the work in less than a year. In the great majority of cases a year is the time required. But if more than a year is required the child is not told that he is a failure nor is he made to repeat the work except when it is considered the best thing for him to do. He is simply given the time necessary for him to make the adaptations and to acquire the skills fundamental to the next step.

Not so long ago the more pupils a teacher failed the more highly was her teaching regarded. It was not her duty to see that pupils succeeded but to maintain standards. Mental hygiene to-day finds that self-confidence and the feeling of ability to accomplish are significant. Society and the individual profit most by constructive success. To

Pupils become enthusiastic over the school band and this enthusiasm is carried over into all their work.

that end modern schools are endeavoring to have all boys and girls succeed, each working up as nearly as possible to his own capacity. Nor are all pupils in a class group expected to come to a common level, the attainment of which is almost impossible for some and for others does not demand reasonable effort.

Each semester a careful study is made of the records of pupils failing and of the causes of failure. It is interesting to note that teachers frequently give as the most common cause of failure, "mental attitude." This cause, they estimate, contributes to more cases of failure than does lack of ability or physical ill health. Up to the present no scheme has been devised that will change the attitude of these pupils. In a city school during a recent semester 100 pupils were selected to attempt the work of the next grade. They had failed and yet educational tests showed their ability to do the work of the upper grade level. These pupils were told that they might be promoted on condition that they could show continuous good work. All of them elected to pledge this and the changed attitude with the challenge made it possible for more than 70 per cent of them to succeed.

As an outgrowth of the study of failures and of the problems of mental and physical ill health, one modern school invites its teachers each semester to list fifteen pupils, five who seem to have the greatest difficulty in learning; five who seem most capable, and five who present problems of discipline. These lists are commented upon by the principal and then a careful individual study is made of each pupil. The playground teacher, the visiting teacher, the auditorium teacher and the nature study teacher are interviewed. The medical department and the testing department each makes its contribution. With the additional knowledge thus gathered the teacher can more intelligently plan her program.

The child guidance clinic is rapidly becoming a part of the modern school and bids fair to be the greatest contributor to the mental health of the pupil and teacher. The whole field of psychiatry is opening up new possibilities. It is possible for most schools, urban or rural, if they are close to a large city, to employ a part-time psychiatrist. The services of an expert in this field may be secured for one half day or more each month at an estimated cost of twenty-five dollars for each half day. The visiting teacher, the school physician and his nurses, the school psychologist, the deans of boys and girls, the principal and his teachers all enter into the organization of the clinic.

It is estimated that 15 per cent of the individuals in any particular school possess slight mental disturbances, and that at least 3 per cent of the total school population are so seriously handicapped mentally that they should be subjected to clinical observation and study. When the necessary data are prepared for the psychia-

trist in advance of the clinic he can handle about one case each hour. Thus in each half day two or three new cases and two or three follow-up cases may be studied.

In many cities a larger percentage of pupils transferred from without the city or from school to school within the city fail than of those who remain in the same building. To give these transfers a better opportunity, adjustment classes have been organized. To these classes, transferred pupils are assigned until they have become adjusted. The number in these classes is small and the teacher has more time to give individual attention to her pupils.

To-day there are many classes known as opportunity or special classes. The particular make-up of these classes varies. In some cases the problem is language difficulty; in others, physical and mental handicaps; in yet others, the group is capable of moving at a rapid speed. No pupils are admitted to or dismissed from these classes without a careful check-up. These classes do not include the pupils who have physical handicaps only. For them other classes are now being organized.

In some cities trade schools afford a splendid opportunity for many pupils to prepare directly and fully for a trade. Pupils sixteen years of age and over who have completed the sixth grade are admitted to these classes, in which about half of the time is devoted to the three "R's" and the other half to actual shop practice. Thus boys and girls are fitted to become intelligent wage earners when in all probability they would otherwise leave school rather than continue with the regular course.

In the business world we are told time and again that Philip, a high school graduate, does not know how to spell, cannot figure accurately, read intelligently or write legibly. The high school teacher has said more or less the same about Philip. If Philip's skill in these tool subjects is not established, considerable mental strain is

In the child guidance clinic of the modern school the pupil is examined by the psychiatrist, the psychologist, the physician, the nurse, the principal and the visiting teacher.

A group engaged in determining the child's behavior weaknesses.

certain to come to him. In some cities all the Philips in the high schools are being given tests in the three "R's" to ascertain if they can read, write, spell and calculate as well as they did in the eighth grade and if that eighth grade accomplishment is sufficient to meet efficiently the needs of life. Those pupils who indicate that they are not up to a satisfactory standard are assigned to "hospital classes" for such length of time as is necessary for the definite and permanent establishment of these necessary tools. They attend these classes without credit and are reassigned if they slump again after their dismissal.

What the Modern School Teaches

Probably the greatest development in the matter of prevention has come in the regular classroom. No longer do dead uniformity, the marking of time, the same assignment, the same task and the same book obtain for all. There is a minimum set-up to be mastered by each pupil. Beyond this there are optional assignments for those who dare and who can fulfill them. Each day the pupil's work becomes a challenge that is within his range to master and to which most pupils respond in a wholesome way.

Nevertheless, careful and individual as this set-up may be, just as in the physical life of the group so in the mental there are unexpected developments and breakdowns. These if recognized early enough can be adjusted within the regular class.

To illustrate, William apparently succeeds in school for the first three or four grades. Suddenly his teacher, his parents, his principal or his supervisor discovers that he is not reading satisfactorily. The teacher probably has been conscious of his shortcoming all the time. The cause is then sought. It is possible only after a careful investigation to diagnose the cause. It may be any one of many. His parents may be doing his reading at home for him; he may have been surrounded by books until he is sick of them; he may have too meager a vocabulary; to him reading may be the meaningless pronunciation of words; he may be too slow in recognizing words; he may have too short an eye span or too limited a background. These and many other reasons including physical handicaps suggest themselves in the effort to ascertain just what the stumbling block is. In arithmetic, in spelling, in all school activities there is not one but a myriad of causes of failure, frequently resulting in mental ill health. In most cases when the cause is ascertained, the remedy can be applied in the regular classes. The desired outcome is not gained in every instance. Just as the physician is not able to prevent all physical ills, so in these mental illnesses the teacher and the school fail.

Failing pupils are not the only ones who receive individual attention. Many pupils are doing work of a passing level and yet do that work under a strain. A careful study of each child's accomplishment in any field reveals that there are certain things that he does well. No longer is he drilled in spelling the same word time and again when in his tests and his daily practice he shows mastery of that word. On the other hand tests may show, for example, that subtraction is difficult for this pupil. Perhaps further information shows that it is only when he must carry or when a zero is involved that his procedure is not successful. In all grades in the regular class this individual study is being introduced to the end that the child may be taught to do the things he cannot do and not have the wrong attitude established in idly doing, time and again, the things he now can do.

Work that is 50 or 70 per cent well done creates both a social problem and a mental attitude toward obligations. To-day emphasis is placed upon mastery or 100 per cent accomplishment. Work 70 per cent well done is not acceptable. There is a big difference between doing seven problems out of ten correctly and doing 70 per cent of the work necessary in each of the ten. To-day when a pupil masters the minimum he has attained mastery in a certain quantity of work. When he masters additional material, his attitude toward his accomplishment and his attainment is on a higher level.

Collection of Data on Radio Education Available

A collection of data on education by radio, believed to be one of the largest collections of its kind, has just been assembled at the United States Office of Education, and is available to students of the subject who visit the office, according to a recent announcement by the Advisory Committee on Education by Radio.

The files of the subcommittee on fact finding of the Advisory Committee on Education by Radio, appointed by the Secretary of the Interior, have been brought in, from the several places where they were collected, to the Office of Education. This material is supplemented by that gathered by the office continuously since December 31, 1929, when the advisory committee finished its work. Information on the subject will be kept as nearly up to date as possible, through the continued cooperation of educators and radio broadcasters who report their plans and activities to the commissioner of education.

School-Policy Makers and the Course of Study

There never was a time when the school superintendent was as valuable and as needed as he is now

By WILLIAM McANDREW

FOR the fifth time I blow here the horns of Jefferson, Washington and the other Revolutionary statesmen, Webster, Clinton, Mann, Stevens, Lincoln and Roosevelt. We have also a large band of trumpeters from editorial offices, authorial studies and school superintendents' desks reasserting that public schools were founded to teach civic, political ideals; to train all youth actively to ensure an honest government for union, justice, tranquillity, defense and the general good of all, not the selfish gain of the pupil.

A Challenge

I have quoted the words of those who know, if anyone does, what you are doing. The consensus is that you are not doing your real duty, that is, the average superintendent isn't. Let him who is above the average tell what percentage of the time and energy of his school system is devoted to teaching the children the present political condition of their country and to imbuing each with an intent to make it right. Let him describe the fitness of his teachers to teach politics and how he got them fit. Let him record what his difficulties were and how he overcame them. He shall have a wreath and the inner satisfaction of having made a good try. If anyone answers the challenge it will be the first time such a thing has happened within my knowledge during forty-nine years of intimate acquaintance with public school men.

Over and again I have seen waves of criticism of schools break out of some newspaper and swash over the town asserting that the school graduates can't read, write, spell or calculate, and never have I known of a school manager refuting the challenge by demanding that the critic come and test the children. We finally did get a fine array of Chicago school principals to let us draw children by lot from the eighth grade. We put them through a battery of tests made by eminent citizens. At the same time we obtained a dozen volunteers from different adult clubs to face the same ordeal. Hooray, the youngsters beat them handsomely!

What we ought to have, here, is an honest to goodness account of the civic training of different cities and why it is so backward. I think I can match any superintendent when it comes to backwardness. I don't know anyone who has been worsted by more and harder people in his promotion of the teaching of politics. This is not a boast; it's a statistic. When I consider the stupidity, cowardice, dishonesty and incompetence of board members, superintendents and teachers, take them all in all, including myself, I am close to tears; but when I realize how much more worth while these people are than when I first knew the public schools, and how much better our folks are than the average professional man or common citizen, I have faith that what America has so long expected of its schools our workers will realize.

A Man's Job at Last

So many worth while people are dissatisfied with the schools' present sidestepping program; so many estimable writers in our own ranks are urging the superintendents to put the schools on the path of civic duty; so many national association programs are stressing it, that it is not at all beyond the realm of probability that real political preparation may come in as generally as has the junior high school, scientific methods in teaching pupils to read, physical training, music and art. When so unsensational a student of education as Briggs agrees with Rugg that we must have an educational revolution to realize the political one of '76, when so calm a thinker as Bode

says that education has fallen so far behind democracy that to put the schools where they belong will appear as radical to most of us as bolshevism does, I thing the schoolmaster should shout for joy.

For this means that there is an opportunity before him of the sort that called for that courageous schoolmaster, Nathan Hale. The tragedy of school keeping has been its guardianship of the little—little children, little matters, little courage. Here is the largest idea that ever engaged the talents of big men—a horde of a hundred million people of all racial strains to be fitted for a generous, unselfish manner of living together in what is officially set down as a more perfect union. They are to be trained to choose justice rather than self-interest; they are to be prepared to demand and to see that others get justice; they are to remove from power unfair officers of the law of whom there are more among us than in England, France, Germany, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Norway or Sweden. We are to train youth to set up a civic organization that will prevent riots and labor disputes by removing the injustices that cause them. We are to defend the nation from attack, and to promote the general, not the individual, welfare.

Varied Mental Food Is Healthful

To turn your school from reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, algebra, Latin, French, rhetoric, literature, cooking and all the mess of exercises which have warranted the "going nowhere" jibe of Paul Hanus, the "wasted lives of children" lament of Draper, the fatuity charges of Bode, Sisson, Briggs, Finney, Bok, Mueller, Snedden, Giddings, Allen, Prosser, Carr, Coe, and Company, is a task that may well rouse you with enthusiasm to gird up your loins to a man's work. The whole realm of human activity is yours from which to select a curriculum of exercises intended to achieve this main purpose. If the general discipline of the mind for citizenship has failed to show itself as coming from the effort devoted to Latin, or botany, then the time given to these subjects must be taken by something more directly productive of what schools are for. If you are like me, you have a strong tendency to think of education as Bain defined it, "that which the schools provide." You conceive it in terms of the arithmetic and spelling we have.

My wife has a book on "Health From Food." But every ration in it is some form of the same whole wheat flour made by the firm that gives the book away. You have a staff of teachers enamored of special subjects to which they have devoted more or less laborious preparation. Such a condition leads Doctor Strayer to get Professor Moore of Cornell to write "Citizenship Through Education," which the American Book Company publishes, to show us how each of the school subjects should be used to generate the civic spirit. Perhaps you can get citizenship out of the food that was selected for scholarship. Lowell doubted it. Perhaps you can do more with an educational evolution than with a revolution. Briggs and Tildsley do not think so. But the essential thing is that you join the movement progressing toward "thinking," as John Galsworthy urges "toward what a government for the people and by them means. This democracy has yet—I say it with solemnity—to prove itself. A nose led and spoon fed democracy is a mere pretense."

Vitalizing a Curriculum

So, too, the curriculum, urge Judd and Withers and Newlon and Broome, you must attack, "Where the vested interests of teachers and principals who have expended much in the preparation of old subjects, who have written books on them, tempt to leaving things as they are, where the investment of publishers in printed matter ensures resistance." But you agree with Duncan Yocum that it "is contrary to true democracy for any such interest to control the school." You pass resolutions condemning the public utility people for pushing upon the teacher propaganda for private ownership. You know, with Professor Sisson, that "the traditional curriculum has run too much to irrelevant matters and must be put vigorously to problems that concern lawmakers, executives and holders of the ballot. The aim of the school must be to train children to think. Their thinking must be about these things." With Walter Robinson Smith you know that "Our schools draw their inspiration from tradition, but American schools were established to ensure civic order."

"We must deal," as Bode insists, "with the problem of making education prepare for a democratic, social system. Too much of our curriculum is unfriendly to democracy. If we believe in democracy why don't we make our course of study around that objective?" Faith in the ability of education to remake society runs through all the professional books in your library. "It can," says Grove Dow, in his "Society and Its Problems," "overcome crime, vice, divorce, intemperance and the other obstacles to civic health. For this, the schools were organized as public charges. They must teach the facts about these important matters and the duty of attending to them."

Accordingly Grennan and Merideth, Eldridge and Clark, and Brooks Graves, have printed their

several intensely interesting volumes on problems of democracy. They are written as school texts, aiming at Washington's objective for schools—"an enlightened public opinion." They collect all conclusions. They escape the charge of partisan propaganda. Their authors, according to their prefaces, "would push the coming citizen into concrete thinking of the service the community should have in return for what it pays for his schooling." "It is impossible for the school management to be fair and honest to the community unless he makes its problems a serious concern of the schools." "Civic duty does not come as a by-product of usual school subjects even excellently taught; it must be specifically studied."

For teachers' reading, Thomas Jefferson Mahan's analysis of good citizen traits, published by Teachers College, N. Y., is one of the most definite outlines. Doctor Bucholz, of Warwick and York, tackles the problem in an intensely Carlylian manner in "Of What Use Are Common People?" He tells me that publishers generally are afraid to print such red hot books as the coming citizen ought to read to know really how sick are our politics. But there is Doubleday, Doran and Company's "Tammany Hall," and the University of Chicago's "Boss Platt" by Doctor Gosnel. Sisson doubts the advisability of putting muckraking literature into the schools and oppressing the children with unsavory details. But the doctors have to know diseases. The Russian educators are deliberately training youth into "valiant warriors" for the soviet ideals. Boss Platt trained public enemies in his "Sunday School Class." Edwin Copeland's "Natural Conduct," Leland Stanford University Press, will appeal to you by its dignity, beauty and strength. He is no sentimentalist, but his presentation of the necessity of inculcating higher ideals than schools now do is characterized by unerring logic.

"A Mirror for Americans"

D. C. Heath and Company have just brought out a superb little volume by Essie Chamberlain of Oak Park, Ill., "A Mirror for Americans," made up of pieces on democracy by Lowell, Samuel Crothers, John Galsworthy and others, with her remarkably searching questions directed toward thinking of the things that matter much. It shows what the teaching of reading and of literature in a public school ought to attempt if it earns its pay. Miss Chamberlain justifies Sisson's optimism: "We recognize that we are at a crisis, but we refuse to yield to alarm or despair. To refuse to lament and do nothing is the school's requirement of life."

In your curriculum revision you will insert the daily study of what is going on now and how we must make it better, as Jefferson said. The study of current history as set forth in good periodicals has become so common a school subject that the Houghton Mifflin Company have issued Kimball's "Current Events," a manual making interesting and effective this newer school pursuit. Here, too, your curriculum needs to print in large type what the study is for so that it does not suffer from the common blight of the means smothering the aims.

Dead and Live History

Jefferson, Rush and the other pioneer proponents of a public school system for keeping the Republic sound set great store by history. With all the high-class expositions offered by Edgar Dawson and his social studies associates, you have ample warning of the strenuous job before you to get pushed into the limbo the classroom mummery of reciting facts and listening to stories. They say you must restore history to the function for which it was put into the schools; to use the lessons of the past for the improvement of the present. Secretary Wilbur is not at all pleased with what you are doing with history. Neither is Frank Cody, nor David Muzzey, nor Albert Bushnell Hart, nor Mary Kelty, nor anyone other than the owners of the copyrights of texts that have sold well since 1890.

With your selected teachers, make your own syllabus, based on any text you please, but make it a matter of stresses, and purposes and, in it, knock the fool emphasis on dates and outworn problems, military campaigns and habits of the Indians. Your school is not paid to prepare for living in 1850.

Even the teaching of language, says Frank Cody to us in his address to the National Education Association, "must change so that it emphasizes the social, civic, political conduct of the generation."

In curriculum revision you have one of the most valuable contacts with your business that could be devised. Your regular and stated meetings with your teacher committees is a prime insurance that you will come into contact with education instead of frittering your life away with buildings, sites, supplies, callers, letters and other things which, during the past twenty-five years, have grown to the point of suggesting to a school superintendent that he is a "business man." They keep you from reading, from studying, from knowing the large aims of your profession. They make of you what might as well be the manager of a wholesale grocery and incline you to think you would be more respected if you were that.

When you get seriously into regular curriculum revision you will learn that it is an expansive proposition, making all of you broader and wiser. You will see the need of a permanent revision committee to keep school abreast, as Harold Rugg, John Withers and Charles Judd remark, of a changing civilization. It takes teachers' meetings out of the dull category of dismal duties they so often are. It vitalizes the gatherings with the big idea. No council of generals planning a campaign, no meeting of salesmen outlining the plans for the season, no Pasteur and his students making the agenda, none of the gatherings animated by well directed anticipation of creative triumphs can have any greater satisfaction than all of you can get out of these contacts with large concepts.

We are given the weightiest concerns of the nation. We are costing the town more than any other public service. We are said to be woefully insignificant and incompetent to deal with important matters. Yet we are the principal ones on whom those matters depend and the way to keep small is to neglect them. But by tackling big things and doing our best with them we do grow stronger, as did Grant, a previous failure, and Roosevelt, a weakling.

We Must Start Now

Of course, the important thing is to start now, not after the things we have on hand are out of the way. Teacher conferences on really big propositions, you guiding and cheering, are essential. I never yet found a teachers' meeting failing to get warm to the grander projects of this sort. The ever-present crape hanger will show how another ounce when added to the teacher's burden will smother her. Don't you answer. Say, "May we have other suggestions of the way in which we can instill the civic obligation into the souls of the children?" Some of your negative lady's own colleagues will be confuting her wails. Your folks will soon be discussing not "Can we do anything?" but, "What shall we do in the way of improving the civic, political service of our school?" I have worked this method for thirty years with some as strongly organized holdbacks as any Milwaukee, Chicago, Minneapolis, Seattle, Nashville or Columbus ever put into the ring. It is a waste to fight them. That's their main indoor sport. But to give the positive, not negative, the creative, not hindering, instinct the problems to work out never fails.

The combined thought, invention and civic urge of your staff of teachers, if it is asked and is given merited praise, can, with your aid and guidance, move your schools toward the service our conventions, our eminent speakers, our authoritative writers say the nation needs and will have.

New York Advises Against Use of Height-Weight-Age Tables

Frederick Rand Rogers, director of health and physical education, New York State Department of Education, has the following to say concerning a common device in child health supervision: "The evidence has become so conclusive against height-weight-age tables in estimating the nutritional status of children that the state education department in a recent letter to the superintendents of schools advises against their use in the public schools. That is, teachers and school nurses should no longer compare pupils' weights with averages and report to parents or to pupils themselves, the percentage above or below the average of any individual. It is suggested that it would be better to destroy the tables, for they are misleading in a large proportion of cases. Many pupils who are indicated as underweight by the height-weight tables are in truth well nourished. Moreover, many pupils whom the tables would characterize as normal actually need medical attention to correct conditions that disturb nutritional equilibrium.

"Height-weight-age tables have served a useful end by stimulating in teachers and school administrators a concern for their pupils' health, but once her interest is aroused almost any teacher's guess concerning her charges 'nutritional status' is better than an index arrived at by dividing their actual weights by averages taken from tables. Perhaps this is but an indirect way of stating that nutritional status is a highly complex condition, which requires for accurate diagnosis, careful observation by physicians."

Oil Rigging Near School May Be Ordered Removed

The Oklahoma state fire marshal has authority to order the persons owning or operating an oil well close to a school building in Oklahoma City to close the well and to remedy all dangerous conditions in the event he finds that the drilling rig, storage tanks, fuel tanks, boilers or other structures are especially liable to fire and that the burning thereof would endanger the school building, Attorney General J. Berry King recently ruled in an opinion to the state fire marshal.

The fire marshal also has the right to order hazardous conditions in the school building removed, Mr. King held, but he cannot close the school or order the school board to do so.

Self-Activity and Creativeness as School Aims

By EUGENE RANDOLPH SMITH, Headmaster, The Beaver Country Day School, Chestnut Hill, Mass.

ON ALL sides the demand for self-activity and creativity in education is heard. H. G. Wells defines civilization as a condition of "creative activity in an atmosphere of helpful good will." George A. Dorsey says, "It is the business of the school so to employ youthful interest that youthful energies will flower into creative channels."

Henry C. Morrison defines the two major products of the secondary school as (a) a wide range of interests and the discovery of some dominating interest and (b) the capacity for self-dependent intellectual life.

While it is increasingly acknowledged that it is important for children's development that they should be active and creative, teachers as a whole have not yet taken the trouble to analyze carefully the reasons why schools should offer opportunity for these phases of a child's development or just what possibilities exist for constructive response to the opportunities offered.

It is a trite statement that one develops in any phase of life through his own activity, physical, mental or moral. It is perhaps equally to be taken for granted that only an unusual urge for creation will persist against discouragement and lack of opportunity for expression. Though it is doubtful whether children have ever had, except in unusual instances, a combination of the finest inspiration and stimulation toward use of their own powers with natural opportunities for such use, it is, nevertheless, true that in the lives of most children of

the past, from primitive times down to the beginning of the present industrial era, there have been natural opportunities for some kind of self-activities involving both mind and body. For the more recent past, life in a small American community is a good example of this. The children had the advantage of observing most of the necessary adult activities within a comparatively close range, they imitated them in their play, took part in them in a simple way as soon as they were old enough to be of any help, and eventually worked into their future activities of adulthood as a more or less inevitable result. Though the range of such children's activities was somewhat limited, they nevertheless offered real and valuable experiences.

In our large cities particularly, and to a considerable extent also in most of our smaller communities, the children now neither see, in any understandable way, the activities of adults, nor do they have opportunity to try their own powers through constructive activities of their own. The school too often is simply a place where pupils study facts from books, while the home has few facilities to encourage children's originality and initiative. Consequently, millions of children are growing up with an inferior preparation for making the most of themselves because they do not have encouragement and opportunity for creation through their own original thinking and their own activity applied to problems that seem real enough to challenge them.

Developing the Creative Attitude

It may be urged that many of our adults to-day show no particular ability to create and no powers that are the evidences of early self-activity. It is doubtful whether any really successful person in the world to-day is achieving his success without some creative planning and execution. It is also questionable whether anyone is succeeding who is not in some degree a master of some phase of his own self-activity. It must be conceded, however, that most of us are handicapped by narrow and inadequate training and experience along these lines. An additional and serious handicap from which we suffer is that to a considerable degree we have lacked the opportunity to develop the creative attitude which underlies a full appreciation of what is worth while. This attitude is fundamentally broadening in its influence on one's attitude toward life as well as toward all of the beautiful and worth while arts that are included in full living.

Only through some satisfying self-expression is life itself motivated and made worth living. This self-expression may reveal itself in many forms. Bertrand Russell says that only the desire to know more about mathematics kept him from seriously considering suicide during his adolescence. Many a scholar satisfies his urge for activity and expression through investigation and eventual mastery of some abstruse field. There are some who can reach satisfaction to a surprising extent through pure physical activity and its application in routine performances. Most of us, however, need self-expression through both physical and mental activity, and Nature's demand for it is so strong as to be one of the dominant factors in life.

What Is a Creative Activity?

But if it is conceded that children should be given scope for self-activity and creativeness, the question is at once raised as to what should be included under these names. For school purposes, self-activity might be defined as that in which a pupil solves a problem or carries out a project by his own thinking and doing, either alone or in cooperation with other members of the group. This does not preclude, but indeed, presupposes the inspiration and stimulation of a teacher, but the pupil is the active agent, expressing what is largely the result of his own learning, thinking and experiences.

A creative activity is one that has been to any considerable degree originated by the pupil out of his own consciousness and experiences. The fact that the result may not be new to other people is unimportant if it is new to the particular child and is therefore to him his own creation. It has been said that children cannot create because the things they originate have all been done many times before. That is entirely beside the point. Creation is primarily original in relation to the person who does the creating, since the habit and attitude of creativeness can be nourished only by experiences in creating things that are an outgrowth of oneself and are new and acceptable results to oneself. Re-creation, therefore, of what is met in one form, absorbed and changed into another form, is a part of creation for children.

Modern nursery schools and kindergartens emphasize these phases of the children's life, giving them ample opportunity to use simple materials alone or in groups in order to express their ideas through these materials and to try their powers in such expression. Crude as are the results, one often finds unusual insight or observation shown in some visual form. I know a six year old boy who, after a visit to a blacksmith's shop, reproduced in blocks the entire furnishing of the shop, including the anvil, the forge and the bellows. Another boy I know built a pipe organ and sat on the bench with his feet on the pedals and his hands on the keys, imagining himself to be playing the instrument. These two things were evidently copies of what the boys had seen. Nevertheless,

they were not only the result of motivated self-activity but they were also to some degree creative, for it was an original and creative act for these young pupils to adapt the blocks they were using to the re-creation of the things they had seen. Each of these results had something of the youthful reproducer's self in them, and to that degree each expressed a creative instinct.

Primary schools, too, have increasingly emphasized self-activity. No longer are pupils seated in fixed desks and chairs, subject to rigid discipline and expected only to accept passively that which the teacher gives them. Instead, the children come and go about their various tasks, each one an active participant rather than a passive follower. Drawing, painting, modeling, simple woodwork and projects dependent on them are accepted as a regular part of the school program, and serve to illustrate and motivate the academic work as well as to occupy a place of their own.

Some of the older pupils are shown here at work in the studio. At the right are special rooms for modeling, jewelry and metal working, and for printing and bookbinding.

It is after the third grade, however, and particularly in the secondary school, that there has been less opportunity for self-activity and creativeness, and it is some of the opportunities for these older children that I wish particularly to emphasize.

Pupils between nine and twelve years of age are still at a stage where it is comparatively easy to make the school a workshop with much freedom in movement and much activity in relation to all the school subjects with which the pupil is working. It is true of course that these years are the ones during which the pupil must acquire mastery of some of the tools of learning and during which he will most easily respond to a certain type of drill work. However, despite the changes for the better, there is still too much emphasis on the formalities of learning, and too little on the acquiring of the technique of investigation and of thinking through and carrying through complete undertakings.

These pupils should have as wide opportunities to study their community as prove feasible. They should go to see those things that are not naturally a part of their experience, such as means of water communication, if there are such, the handling of the freight of a town or city, particularly that part of it that has to do with food, and the various industries, at least to the extent of giving the children an idea of the method of organization of present day industrial life. Naturally such trips should grow out of school work, should be closely associated with such work and should bring enrichment and understanding back to it. In the school there should be opportunities for many kinds of handwork, from the simplest drawing to crafts involving a considerable degree of skill. Homemaking should be available both for boys and girls, with its emphasis freely changed to suit the needs of the particular group as well as of the subject. Science also, with much practical experimentation, should give eager minds and hands scope for activity.

Whenever possible the work done in the various mediums should be in some way connected with other interests that concern the child. The actual

school work in history, geography, English, mathematics or whatever it may be can be tremendously helped by such connections and the child's entire response, as well as that of the groups, will be influenced by the degree to which the urge for activity is satisfied.

In connection with subjects, there should be a triple aim in mind in bringing in concrete ways of illustrating or otherwise applying the work. Such a project, for example, as a class attempt to build a large scale product map of the United States should provide an interest and a motive that would arouse the desire of the pupils to find out as much as possible about the information that should appear on the map and should therefore stimulate investigation to a degree that ordinary assignment of lessons could not possibly equal. Secondly, the work should be so organized that any information brought in by a pupil would be shared by the rest of the group in a way to make it vivid, and it should be put on the map in such a way as to impress it on the minds of all the pupils. That is, the experience should have value, not only in preparing the attitude of the mind for learning, but also in increasing the strength of the impression made and therefore in making the learning more successful. In addition, pride in the undertaking should have a habit forming effect in building up an appreciation of a completely and excellently done piece of work. Satisfaction in accomplishment is the best preparation for further accomplishment, and a succession of worth while accomplishments that have resulted from the pupil's own thinking, cooperation and activity provides a solid educational foundation on which to build in the later years.

For the extra-academic activities at the Beaver Country Day School, Chestnut Hill, Mass., the pupils of the intermediate classes are organized into trade guilds after the pattern of the ones that existed in the Middle Ages. This came about at the suggestion of pupils who were studying medieval history. Among these guilds are the Woodworkers, the Bakers, the Potters, the Dyers, the Pewterers, the Metal Workers, the Puppeteers, the Bookbinders, the Stained Glass Workers, the Lacemakers and the Weavers. One sixth grade class that is studying the colonial period in United States history is building a log cabin and furnishing it by the methods of the craftsmen of that time. The pupils are making leaded glass windows for the cabin. They have prepared a stock of hand-dipped candles and have made pewter sconces for the wall. They are building the furniture in the woodworking shop, are weaving curtains and rugs, are making dishes of pewter and eventually expect to have a complete exhibit of early American handicrafts.

A pupil chooses a guild and after having chosen it, he remains a member for half the school year. Those who change guilds at the midyear must serve an apprenticeship and are received into the guilds as full members only when they can show ability to work with the rest of the group.

The guilds combine at times for some departmental affair of larger scope than could be handled by one group alone. For example, a Christmas play was produced by the guilds jointly. They all marched in the procession, bearing their banners and wearing their insignia. Members of the guilds produced one of the old Christmas plays, and each guild, as a part of the play, made an offering of its

This picture shows books and portfolios produced by the pupils. The open book at the right was hand printed, decorated and bound by children ten years of age.

This model of a manor house and its surroundings was made by a class in medieval history after a careful investigation that took the pupils to all the sources available.

own work. At another time, a medieval fair was produced on the school grounds with the members of each guild working in a booth where they were actually producing the kind of handwork on which they had been busy in school. The Noah play was given, there were various amusements that were typical of medieval fairs and the children succeeded in creating the atmosphere of the times.

After the children have entered the junior high school the academic pressure increases in most schools, often to a degree that crowds out opportunities for self-expression and creation except as they may come in the direct preparation of academic lessons. Even in these lessons there is in general an increasing demand for scope for personality. A short time ago, however, a parent wrote the head of a school that was emphasizing thinking and originality in its pupils, protesting against the way in which history was taught. The parent said that instead of "teaching one textbook to the pupil" the school was seeing that several authors were followed all the time, with broad reading from many other authors in addition, and that the result was a pupil who was always delving into the home library and asking to go to public libraries, was even discussing history at the dinner table at night, and was daring to question the opinions of the various authors and to compare the ways in which different ones treated the same question. The pupil was developing the critical instinct and was beginning to think for himself when he had the material in hand! Both self-activity and a creative and original attitude were being shown by this pupil, yet the parent, like many parents and unfortunately many teachers, preferred to be undisturbed by such a questioning attitude and to have the young person become a passive receiver of what was handed to him.

In all the subject fields in the upper school there is scope for great mental self-activity and for all of the originality the pupil can put into the work. It is absolutely necessary, however, that the school and its teachers shall approve and appreciate the results of such activity. If it is the accepted thing in the school for its pupils to write poetry, much poetry will be written, and while some of it will be poor, there will be developed among the pupils as a group a feeling for poetic expression and a resultant sympathy, if not a real love for it. Some of the pupils will go far beyond this point and an occasional one will show real talent. Some will show their originality in prose writing, dramatic expression, in a genuine type of historical investigation (even in comparatively young classes), while others will develop it in the secondary school mathematics, for there is scope in that for all the original thinking that any pupil can possibly do. In some schools geometry is being taught entirely as a subject for original investigation. No textbook of proofs is in the hands of the pupils, but

they develop texts of their own, worked out in individual and class investigation of this subject.

The science work is equally rich in possibilities, besides providing a fine combination of handwork and intellectual problems to solve. Foreign languages may seem at first thought to offer less scope for originality. This is seeming rather than actual. If the work is thoroughly alive, there will be original stories in the language, dramatizations of the stories or books read, reports on activities that are being carried on individually or collectively, clever ways of fixing ideas, even such otherwise dry ones as the grammatical fundamentals.

Nevertheless, pupils of from twelve to eighteen years of age need other activities besides the purely intellectual ones. It is to be supposed that they are having exercise of a constructive nature, which will meet their purely physical needs. The problem therefore is largely one of supplying the handwork and art needed for a well rounded program. There must, it seems to me, be a sharp differentiation between pupils who are doing such work for a vocational purpose and those whose work of this kind is a supplement to academic learning.

For the first group, machine shops are quite justified, particularly if their preparation is to be for the use of machines, such as those present in these shops. If these pupils are being prepared for a particular vocation, the more nearly they learn to carry on the activities of that vocation exactly as they are to be carried on in their future work, the more valuable the training will be. It is not such pupils, however, that concern us in this discussion. It is the ones with no particular vocational aim, who, if the school did not make special provisions for their needs, would largely lack the broadening influences that could come to them.

Pupil's Responses Are Important

For the second group of pupils, I do not believe in the machine shop type of handwork, for it is not handicraft in itself and on the whole does not serve the purposes for which we are aiming. Sufficient machinery to turn out stock for woodworking or to make it possible for a pupil to carry through a project otherwise too difficult would, of course, be both convenient and necessary. Work in the various arts and crafts, however, should be designed by the pupil, done by the pupil as handwork and, if possible, in some way used by the pupil. A certain part of it should grow out of the other school activities and of the life needs of the child. Other parts may well be simply artistic expression without such definite motivation. The balance between these two parts can be determined, however, only on the basis of a child's responses.

On a Monday morning recently when junior high school pupils were having an "activities" period in which pupils might work in any medium they pleased, I counted twelve different crafts being carried on by the pupils. The older ones also distribute themselves quite widely through the various fields and seem to find great pleasure in discovering some one art in which good results can be obtained. It should be a requirement that whatever is to be made must first be designed, so that there may be ample teaching of the fundamentals, whatever the form of the expression. The older pupils are much interested in prints made from linoleum blocks, wood blocks or etched plates. Many of them are enthusiastic about modeling and the results are often most interesting.

Interrelating Activities and Studies

Woodworking, including carving, and to some extent metal working, are more popular with the younger classes than with the older ones, except in application to particular projects, such as building the scenery for a play. Drawing and painting can be so commonly used that they constitute a new language or means of expression for many of the pupils. It becomes quite natural to cartoon in history, to illustrate a case in Latin, to vivify a problem in mathematics by dramatizing it in drawing or to illustrate the story being read in English or translated from one of the foreign languages. The important thing is that art as a means of expression is no longer in a closed compartment, but instead is constantly interrelated with all of the other activities of the pupils.

Music, too, can become a school activity of vast importance. Fortunately, many schools are recognizing this, and orchestras, choirs and glee clubs are becoming more common. Great progress will be made when it is generally understood that the approach to music is through self-activity, not through routine learning. Too early emphasis on the reading of music and sight singing has probably been the cause of much backwardness in the development of this art. The important thing is that children shall begin to sing and to enjoy singing at an early period, that they shall absorb the technique as it has meaning and place in their thinking and that they shall develop their appreciation through the use of the best music and as broad a contact with that kind of music as possible. If pupils can have such musical experiences year after year, and perhaps can have the opportunity to study various instruments under the guidance of the school at the same time, a lasting and worth while response to this field is certain to be developed in a large proportion of the pupils.

Drama, too, offers great opportunity for school activity. The best dramatic work is that which

grows almost spontaneously out of the work going on in some particular subject, though, of course, the completely carried through dramatic project also has genuine value. An English class dramatizes the story or the book that has been read, a history class reproduces the Continental Congress or some other body or event in the period being studied, even the mathematics department writes a play, perhaps to illustrate the place of mathematics in the life of the world. The value to the children who are the participants is great, while those who see and hear the results should also benefit by it.

I have hardly more than touched upon the various phases of this question. Opportunities for self-activity of various kinds lie all about any teacher and any group of pupils. A teacher need not hesitate over or bar such activities on the plea that "there is no time." Properly used, the time taken for the activities more than pays for itself in increased interest, more efficient learning and better results. Fear to use the natural responses of children is a confession of weakness on the part of the teacher, while the teacher who is sensitive to opportunities for stimulating eager active responses is sure to justify her teaching by the results.

While to some degree the social and moral side of this question is outside the scope of the paper, I should not be satisfied to omit it entirely. It seems certain that the development of self-reliant self-control can come only through experiences in attempting self-control on a lesser scale, but one that grows greater with the years. Teachers must give more study to the possibilities for stimulating thinking activity along constructive lines of social and moral conduct. They must be willing to let children try, even if they occasionally fail, and they should be satisfied only when pupils have reached a reasonable degree of self-mastery and ability to discipline themselves without the need for superimposed discipline from without.

A Worthy Goal

Fortunately, this kind of self-activity is greatly helped by the other kinds of which I have been speaking. The child who is happily active on worth while undertakings is, as an inevitable consequence, meeting opportunities for choice, for self-control and for the development of self-discipline. There is less chance for unfavorable influences to creep in and almost certainly a better orientation of the child's whole life. To a certain degree, therefore, but not completely, the child's growth in social and moral activity may be expected to be influenced by the opportunities given him to lead a life of constructive and creative activity in the fields best suited to his age and development.

The school can hardly do better than to set as its goal a condition in which every child is busy with all of his powers, where each child is observing, thinking and doing, where judgment is developing by use, where expression in various forms is a natural consequence and where responsibility is developing in a way likely to result in better community and world citizenship.

The Supervision of Rural Schools in Missouri

"Assisting in the improvement of classroom teaching is the main reason for school supervision," writes Irene O'Brien, rural school supervisor for Missouri, in the *United States Daily*.

"This has been done in the rural schools of northwest Missouri through demonstration teaching by the supervisor, the county superintendent or a local teacher at a central school, which we call the demonstration school.

"The supervisor spends a week in each county, giving a day in each of four or five different schools. These schools are in different parts of the county and the neighboring teachers dismiss their schools to attend one meeting.

"The day is spent in demonstration teaching, which the teachers observe under direction, and which is followed by a conference discussing the work done and other problems on which the teachers want help.

"The supervisor visits each county once a month, spending one day on each visit. She spends the day each time in the same school, to which all the teachers of the county are invited. The supervisor and the local teacher do the teaching, which the visiting teachers observe under direction. At these meetings a time is provided for conference.

"For the last two years the major stress has been placed on reading. While we do not think that reading problems have been fully solved, we know much has been accomplished.

"For the next two years stress will be placed on arithmetic. We hope, by definite testing and diagnosing, to discover deficiencies and suggest measures for correction. We also hope, by demonstration teaching, that we may improve the presentation of arithmetic subject matter.

"A phase of the supervisory program is that of inspection and approval of schools. The supervisor visits any school ready for classification and inspects the conditions as to sanitation and health, the teaching equipment, the esthetic surroundings and the quality of teaching."

Securing Better Instruction for Rural Schools

By KATHERINE COOK, Chief, Division of Special Problems, United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

This department of rural education is conducted by Helen Heffernan, chief, division of rural education, state department of education for California, Sacramento, and president, department of rural education, National Education Association.

THE importance of securing and retaining adequately prepared and capable young men and women to teach in the rural schools of the United States is too obvious to need elaboration. Our apparent inability to meet this need is equally obvious. Rural schools neither get nor retain such teachers in proportion to their needs, except in relatively small numbers. This has been shown by a number of educational surveys and by numerous special studies of the teaching situation, and it is well known to every rural school official and student of rural education.

Why Rural Schools Have Poor Teachers

Not only have low salaries, uncertain tenure, isolation and poor living conditions conspired to this end, but the condition is augmented by the fact that rural schools are the accepted proving ground for inexperienced teachers. Cities have set up higher protective standards. City superintendents, demanding of entering teachers not only training but successful experience, have scanned the neighboring rural teaching staffs as a favorable place for selection. Good teachers, having served a satisfactory apprenticeship, move on to their accepted reward—a town or city position. Added to all these discouragements is the apparent indifference on the part of rural communities to the need of professionally trained teachers, especially for the small schools, and a mistaken idea that employment of undertrained, underpaid teachers is an economical procedure.

Yet what goes on in the classroom between the teacher and the child admittedly determines the quality of the child's education. All other provisions and activities, administration and supervision merely set the stage for efficiency in the classroom and are successful only to the extent that they secure it. These are age old truisms, but as a result of recent scientific studies of education teaching has taken on a new significance. More careful selection of persons to be trained, more intelligent elimination of the relatively unfit along the road to training in teacher preparing institutions, lengthened periods of training and of apprenticeship under expert supervision are being demanded on an increasingly widening scale.

Fortunately this movement for better teaching has attained a measure of success in rural communities. This is not the time or the place to do more than refer to the efficacy of various administrative efforts which in nearly all states to some degree at least have resulted in more liberal support through state equalizing or stimulating funds or both, and which in many states have resulted in increased and better supervision, in longer teacher tenure, better salaries and other important achievements.

Rural and Urban Salaries

The war rendered effective service in the attainment of better salaries, but the apparent effort to avoid a teacher shortage at any cost, countrywide in extent but most acute in its after effects in rural schools, left us with lowered standards at a critical period. Postwar studies revealed that many teaching positions were held by untrained, inexperienced persons whose compensation was not less but more than the quality of their services justified. As a result, rural school officials in too many instances have been forced on the defensive to retain the ground gained in

salaries. In general they have been reasonably successful. Despite the still large and indefensible discrepancy between the salaries of rural and urban teachers, which for the United States as a whole in 1926 was represented by the difference between $1,787 for urban and $855 for rural teachers, yet rural teaching offers in many states as high or higher compensation than other occupations requiring the same or about the same preparation. According to a recent study of the teaching situation made by a careful student in one of our most progressive states: "Too many people are seeking admission to the teaching profession. Fundamentally this is due to the fact that present salary schedules for teachers are very attractive as compared with opportunities for employment which exist in other fields and in consideration of the amount of preparation required."

Recent studies indicate that considerable progress is being made in extending teacher tenure. Dr. William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, calls our attention to the fact that since the average tenure in cities is now ten to fifteen years, this in itself lessens the possibility of change on the part of rural teachers. Specialization in teaching and in type of service and professional supervision tend to lengthen the period of service. Myers, in a recent study of teacher tenure in Pennsylvania, gives the length of service of rural teachers who are graduates of normal schools as twelve years, exceeding by two years the average for the same group in cities. Salary bonuses from county or state funds based on length of service of qualified teachers in isolated communities seem to be having a favorable effect in the few places in which they are in practice.

How Training Institutions Can Help

Just as the war provided an opportunity to increase salaries, so there are at present discernible certain unmistakable signs that this is an opportune time to win increased interest in qualified teachers for rural schools, particularly by two significant means, first, through enlarged and improved rural teacher training programs on the part of standard teacher training institutions, and second, through higher certification requirements.

Teacher training institutions have not in the past assumed the same responsibility for training rural teachers as for training urban teachers. This is true both as to quantity, measured by the numbers entering service in rural schools, and as to quality, measured by the number and types of specialized courses designed particularly for the preparation of rural teachers. The reasons for this situation are not difficult to discover. While the farm population contributes and has contributed to the support of higher institutions of learning including teacher training institutions in the same manner as the urban population and is therefore entitled to the same service, the farmer has not demanded or in many cases appreciated and availed himself of this service as his urban neighbor has. Consequently, when facilities for training rural teachers were established and courses offered on a par with other courses in teacher training institutions, maintenance was expensive and the service relatively unrecognized.

Type of Training Has Changed

Many institutions, even state institutions which should be primarily service institutions, were unable or unwilling to continue these courses solely or largely on a service basis. In the meantime urban communities were clamoring for more and more trained teachers, and this demand in many cases taxed the facilities of the institution. Special courses for training rural teachers were expensive and unpatronized, and no great strain of conscience was involved in relegating the responsibility to an obscure place in the institution's program or in avoiding it wholly.

Conditions must be faced. Many departments of rural education established with high hopes found difficulty in attracting capable students to the courses offered and in placing them later in attractive positions. The lure of higher salaries and the advantages of urban community living appealed to the candidates and to the officials responsible for placing graduates on the completion of the courses offered. For some institutions legislative appropriations are related to the size of the student body. Officials feel obligated to make an attractive appeal to prospective students. So the whole vicious circle—candidates for positions, institution officials and the farm population itself—conspired to deprive rural children of trained and efficient teachers.

Now a substantial change in the attitude of teacher training institutions toward the training of rural teachers has set in. This is apparent from recent developments. Studies made by Robinson for the Bureau of Education and by Bunting and McGuffey in 1927 showed that 85 per cent of the teacher training institutions studied offered courses or maintained departments, varying in length and quality, but designed for the special preparation of teachers for rural schools. Indications of possibilities for further extension are apparent.

First, there is a general upward trend of qualifications demanded by the public and by educators who insist on making teaching a profession which,

like a chain, is no stronger than its weakest link. Easy entrance to teaching through the examination route and local certification are untenable if it is to be professionalized. Professional training to the extent of two years of higher grade is more and more accepted as a minimum essential. Thus the general situation has placed teacher training institutions on a more stable and dignified basis with longer courses, better facilities and better understanding of their functions as professional schools than ever before.

Second, growth in enrollment in secondary and higher institutions (this enrollment has about doubled in the last decade) including teacher training institutions has not only eliminated the necessity of drives for students but has raised the question of how to make a selection among the many applicants for admission to freshman classes in higher institutions. Has it not also eliminated the situation of too few applicants for entrance to courses designed to prepare rural teachers and too few candidates among the graduates of teacher preparing institutions for positions in rural communities? An instance in my own experience will serve to illustrate the changed situation in respect to the point at issue. Two years ago I happened to visit a state teachers' college in a large city. Its facilities had been devoted almost entirely to training city teachers, particularly for positions in the city in which the school is located. Owing to a marked surplus of teachers in that state, at least a hundred of those graduated the preceding year obtained positions in country schools in the vicinity. Many of them were unable to meet satisfactorily the problems of the small rural schools in which they were placed, since their entire preservice training had been intended to prepare them for teaching in city positions. This fact had been called to the attention of the institution early in the year by the state supervisor. The result was that the institution established courses in rural education and placed a field worker among the graduates in service to help them to solve their problems and to bring back to the institution suggestions for strengthening the preservice courses.

The Need for Higher Standards

On the basis of recent teacher supply and demand studies, at least two states are considering selecting entering students and lengthening courses in training institutions. In Minnesota where teachers are still trained in connection with secondary schools, entrance to the normal training departments has for some years been limited to students making standard grades in their high school courses. Recently the New England Association of School Superintendents passed the following resolution, which appears significant in this connection: "Whereas there is a surplus of candidates for admission to the teaching profession, and whereas some of these prospective teachers are poorly fitted by nature or otherwise for this important occupation, be it resolved that normal schools and colleges of education, in cooperation with superintendents of schools, be urged to establish higher standards for admission and graduation, with special reference to the mental qualifications and teaching ability of students who intend to enter the teaching profession."

Directing Students Into Proper Courses

If these instances indicate a common situation it appears that we need not fear a serious dearth of applicants for admission to teacher training institutions at the present time or in the immediate future. Certainly where selective measures are applied to the entering students, the old excuse that not enough students were available to take courses in rural education would no longer be tenable. Teacher training institutions that study the types of positions and the possible vacancies in each as a basis for predicting the number of teachers to be trained and the kind of offerings to be provided in teacher training institutions should, through proper student guidance and counseling as well as through the establishment of necessary courses, direct the needed proportion of students into such courses with reasonable assurance that there will be a sufficient number of positions open to them at the time of their graduation.

Third and by no means least in importance, there is, I believe, a real not an artificial surplus of teachers which is now forcing teacher training institutions, even those that have hitherto been reluctant to do so, to prepare teachers for service in rural schools. Any effort to measure a teacher surplus brings up the inevitable question of what is meant by "teacher" in this connection. Some school officials who lament a surplus of applicants for positions at the same time lament an undersupply of qualified teachers. Reports from a large number of states, magazine articles and several statewide studies show a general surplus, at least in some types of the service.

In order to check up as effectively as possible on the question of teacher surplus at the present time, a questionnaire was sent to twenty-one states distributed in such a way as to represent the country as a whole, the rural population and the different degrees of progress as to minimum certification requirements. It was recognized that any inquiry concerning teacher supply and

demand must set up some limitation of what is meant by a teacher. This request was therefore worded as follows: "Please describe the situation in your state as to teacher surplus or shortage in terms of the availability of legally certificated applicants for positions as elementary school teachers as of September, 1929." It is believed that when a state establishes certain standards for licensing persons to teach, those who meet the standards must be considered, within that state at least, as teachers. Surpluses reported may be interpreted in the light of the definition just given. The states replying were, with four exceptions, those in which certification standards have recently been raised.

Fifteen of the twenty-one states report a surplus of teachers; three (Arkansas, New York and Michigan) that the supply is well balanced, neither surplus nor shortage; three (Delaware, Minnesota and Missouri) did not answer the question. One of the three not answering the question reported a large surplus of teachers in the summer of 1929.

Since this paper is concerned not only with teacher surplus, but with the responsibility of teacher training institutions for the teaching situation, a few questions concerned this phase of the subject. Twelve states reported that facilities were available for training teachers in standard teachers' colleges or normal schools in sufficient numbers to satisfy the demand. Two reported that increased facilities were necessary. Four did not express an opinion on the subject. Two of the states reporting are now considering the establishment of three-year courses as the minimum in teacher training institutions and the minimum requirement for teaching certificates. Statements from both these states show careful study of supply and demand, so that it seems safe to state that these increased requirements are made with the assurance that no shortage is probable.

Certification Standards Must Be Raised

Because of the apparent surplus of candidates for higher education and the apparent widespread surplus of certificated applicants for teaching positions at the present time, the teacher training institutions can, it is believed, find ample justification for extending their activities in at least two directions, first, in increased efforts to cultivate appreciation of the value of their product among patrons of rural schools, and second, in devoting increased attention to training graduates for and placing them in rural school positions.

Another way to provide better trained rural teachers is to raise certification standards, and thus to improve the teaching staff through continuation of the progress that has been made in setting up prerequisites for the lowest grade of certificate issued.

Progress in this direction presupposes centralization of certification authority in state education officials. The importance of prerequisites for the lowest grade of certificate issued should not be overlooked by those interested in raising the standard of rural teachers. While the effects of high qualifications for higher grades of certificates may eventually permeate throughout the whole system there is, as experience teaches, the possibility of continuing the practice of using rural schools as a dumping ground for the poorly qualified who are unable to attain higher certification. Experience shows also that there is grave danger of the unfit displacing the fit. Mr. Myers, in summing up the results of the Ohio supply and demand study of 1927, says, "In Ohio one of the most important problems in connection with providing trained teachers for the public schools is that of eliminating cheap competition in order to give the trained teacher an opportunity to secure employment."

How Certification Has Progressed

Five years of progress in certification by setting up minimum prerequisites, as pointed out in Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 19, 1927, includes among other accomplishments, the following: The number of states with no definite scholarship requirements for entering the teaching profession except examination decreased from thirty to fifteen. The number in which a certificate of low grade could be obtained through high school education or less decreased from forty-four to twenty-one. During this period nine states set up as a prerequisite high school graduation plus one year of professional training as a minimum standard for the lowest grade of certificate, and four additional states set the standard of two years of professional training above high school graduation as the minimum. Since the issue of that bulletin, at least six states have raised or have provided for raising in the immediate future through laws already enacted minimum standards varying from six weeks to a year of professional training. These achievements offer ample evidence of the possibility and of the efficacy of certification laws and regulations as a method of raising standards and as a protection for rural children against untrained and inexperienced teachers. Experience apparently evidences the fact that standards can be raised in this way without causing any undue shortage of teachers or handicapping teacher training institutions or individuals preparing to enter this profession.

The questionnaire returns from the twenty-one states to which reference has been made were examined again with the idea of ascertaining what relationship might exist between higher standards of certification and teacher shortage. Of the states reporting a surplus, four require two years' professional training above high school as the minimum prerequisite for certification; three, one year; two, twelve semester hours; one, six weeks; one, high school graduation only, and five, neither a fixed amount of academic training above high school graduation nor high school graduation. The states that have set up the higher standards report about the same situation as to surplus as those with no professional training requirements. Replies of those reporting to the question, "What are the obstacles to further increasing standards?" confirm this evidence. Of the nine states that require one or two years above high school as a minimum, two reply that there are no obstacles; standards will be raised. One states that further increases (in this particular state the present minimum is two years beyond high school) might involve a shortage in rural communities. Other obstacles in these states reported are: Too many rural district boards do not feel the need of further increase and there are too many county normal schools; insufficient facilities in normal schools, and inability to secure increased salaries. One school failed to answer.

Among the obstacles to increased standards most commonly cited by the whole group of states are lack of appreciation on the part of the public; lack of appreciation on the part of school boards of the need of better trained teachers; too many certificating agencies; objections by teachers and politicians; inability to secure qualified teachers (this reply came from two states reporting surpluses); difficulty in obtaining legislation. Apparently fear of a teacher shortage is not an obstacle to increasing certification requirements, or if it is, there is no evidence of it in the reports from these twenty-one states. It is interesting also that in all states but one (even those whose present minimum is two years above high school graduation) reporting officials believe that the standards should be raised. Most of them expect to be able to raise standards in the near future.

The Future Looks Bright

The present situation then seems to me to be promising to everyone interested in better instruction in rural schools. From the large number of persons now seeking higher education of all types, including professional courses in education, it is unbelievable that there cannot be found an adequate number of candidates for sound courses in rural education as they are made available. The present surplus of certificated teachers, augmented by the other factors that I have indicated, is now leading and will further lead us in the direction of higher qualifications for all teachers including those for rural schools. Both teacher training institutions and certification authorities will meet this new need to the extent that they recognize it as their opportunity and their responsibility. The opportunity of rural school officials and others interested in securing better teachers in rural schools lies in promulgating as widely as possible an awareness of the significance of the present situation.

Rural Schools on the Decrease in North Carolina

The number of active rural schools in North Carolina has been decreasing at the rate of 200 a year since 1919-1920, when the peak in number was reached, according to a statement issued by the state department of public instruction.

There are now 6,046 rural schools in which instruction is offered, whereas in 1919-20 there were 7,688 schools located in rural districts, the statement reads. Five years ago, 1923-24, there were 6,830 rural schools.

Counting the 573 schools in charter districts there were in 1928-29 a total of 6,619 public schools taught, 4,068 for white children and 2,551 for colored children.

The schools for white children are divided into 3,334 elementary units and 734 high school units. Of the elementary schools, 992 were the one-teacher type, 829 the two-teacher type, 335 the three-teacher type, and 1,178 the type having four teachers or more. The high schools for white children are divided according to number of teachers as follows: 101 with one and two teachers, 153 with three teachers and 480 with four or more teachers.

The 2,551 colored schools taught are classed as 2,440 elementary and 111 high schools. The elementary schools are further divided into 1,113 one-teacher, 698 two-teacher, 279 three-teacher, and 350 four or more teacher; whereas the high schools were classed as 48 one and two-teacher, 19 three-teacher and 44 four or more teacher schools.

According to the departmental statement there is a tendency for small schools to decrease in number and for larger schools to increase. This fact accounts for the net decrease in number of rural schools from year to year.

A Venture in Ability Grouping and Its Success*

By FLOYD T. GOODIER,
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AN APPRAISAL of the homogeneous grouping that is used in the Chicago Heights school system, Chicago Heights, Ill., with pupils of grades seven and eight is presented in this study, not because the study in itself is especially significant but because it is more worth while than a purely academic discussion of the topic. In order to explain the experiment it will be necessary to describe briefly the school situation.

Chicago Heights is an industrial center of 26,000 population, twenty-six miles south of Chicago. The population is largely foreign, mostly Southern European stock with some Lithuanians and Poles. During the last few years the colored population has increased to several thousand. The percentage of skilled laborers is relatively small in proportion to the population.

In September, 1929, a new intermediate school was opened to care for all pupils of grades seven and eight. The building is planned to provide for 1,000 pupils of twenty-five units or groups of forty pupils each. In the building are found the auditorium, the gymnasium, the library, the general science laboratory, art rooms, the lunch room, the manual training and domestic science rooms and sixteen regulation classrooms. Because of the lack of funds the manual training and domestic science departments have not been organized.

The teaching force the first year consisted of a supervising man principal, a second man who taught general science part time and served as dean of boys, and seventeen women teachers. The men and five of the women held the bachelor's degree. All the others had completed more than two years of training beyond high school graduation. About half of them were pursuing university courses. All had taught prior to September, 1929, the amount varying from two years to seventeen years, the median being nine years. The principal and three teachers were new to the school system and a fourth was new to the work of the seventh and eighth grades.

The opening of this intermediate school was an educational event of great significance to the school system and was prepared for with consid-

*Paper read at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence, Atlantic City, N. J.

erable care. Throughout the school year, 1928-29, the superintendent held meetings each two weeks with seventh and eighth grade teachers, discussing the problems connected with the organization and administration of the new school. The fifth year book of the Department of Superintendence dealing with the junior high school curriculum was made the basis of these discussions. Other texts were used as references and a rather thorough study was made of the little book, "Ability Grouping in the Junior High School," by Ryan and Crecelius. The principal-elect spent his Saturdays and Mondays during the month of August at the new building, holding conferences with the superintendent, making outlines of work and deciding upon the routine of procedure for the new school.

Ability grouping of pupils had been used prior to this year with grade eight and in a few instances with grade seven. Most of the teachers of the present year were familiar with the procedure.

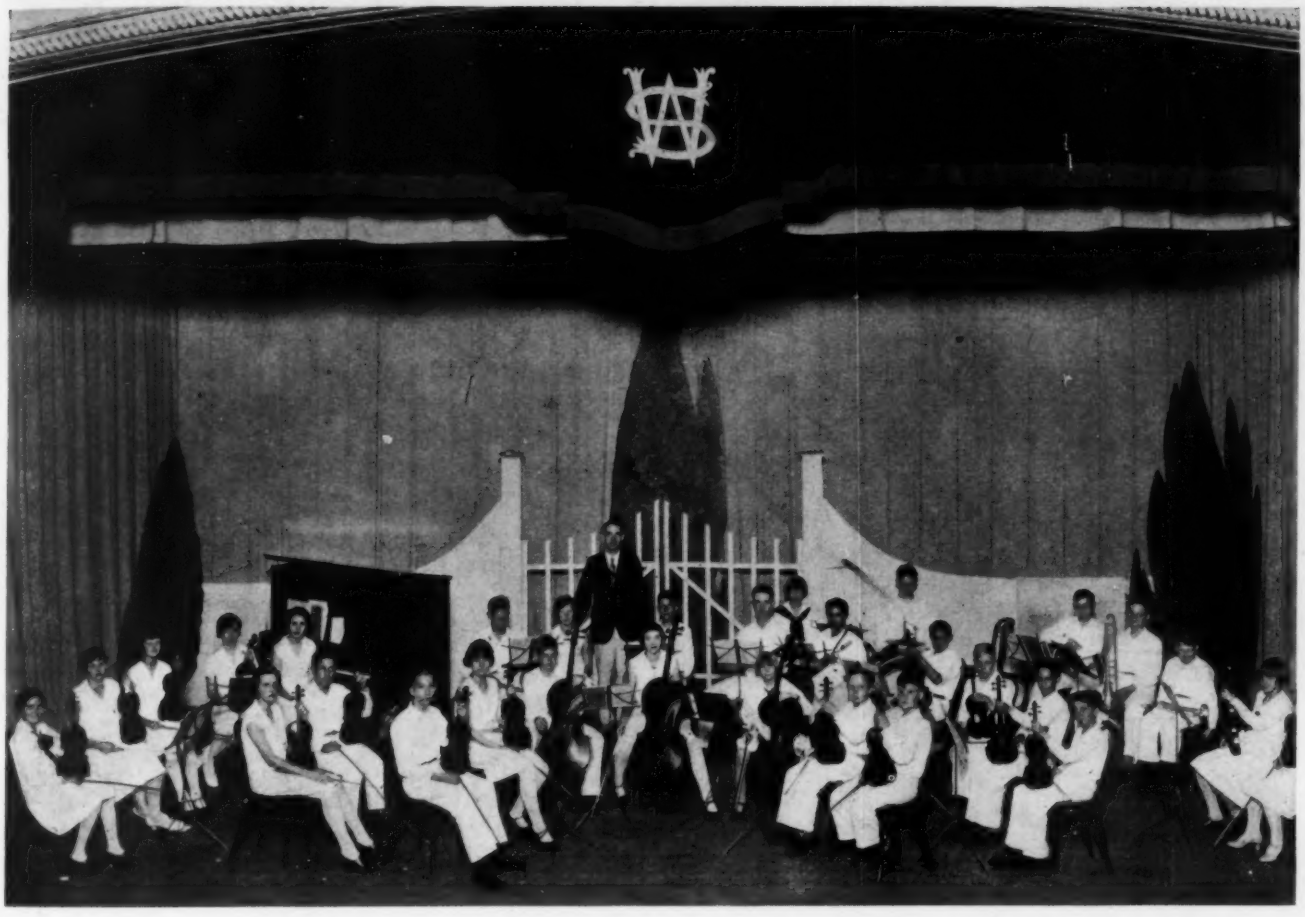
Sectioning the Enrollment

The enrollment in September was sectioned as follows: high eighth, 149, four sections; low eighth, 156, four sections; high seventh, 147, four sections; low seventh, 227, six sections. The sectioning was done during the spring. The superintendent gave a group intelligence test to all pupils of the high sixth grade. After the papers had been graded the teachers assisted the superintendent in the classification. While in general the pupils were sectioned according to their I. Q. rating, exceptions were made upon the recommendation of the teachers and in the light of the previous school record of the pupils. All the pupils who were to pass into the low eighth and high eighth grades, and most of those who were to pass into the high seventh grade were already under departmental organization and grouped homogeneously. They were regrouped according to the judgment of principal and teachers. Upon recommendation of the teacher, some changes were made after school started.

The Value of the Activity Period

The school day is divided into six fifty-minute periods with an "activity period" of thirty minutes each forenoon from 10:30 to 11 o'clock. On one day of each week the activity period is given over to a meeting of the school clubs. Each teacher sponsors a club and each pupil belongs to a club. The membership of each club is determined by the choice of the pupils, no attention being given to grades or sections to which the pupils belong. A general school assembly is held one day a week and a class assembly once a week. Class assembly programs are provided and presented by the pupils themselves with the advice of the class advisers. Athletic teams are made up from the entire school membership. Thus

Basketball occupies a prominent place among the activities provided for the pupils of the Washington Intermediate School, Chicago Heights, Ill.



The orchestra, composed of seventh and eighth grade pupils, meets for rehearsal on the stage of the auditorium.

through the activities of the clubs, the assemblies and the athletics, pupils come in contact with those of other class sections.

During the sixteenth week of school, the principal distributed a questionnaire containing fourteen questions in regard to the success of the grouping plan. Each teacher was asked to answer the questions without conferring with other teachers. According to the large majority of the answers to these questions, homogeneous grouping does promote desirable social participation.

Answers Are Significant

Significant questions and answers are as follows: "Has the grouping made possible more effective teaching?" All replied "yes" except two. One said, "In some ways, yes, and in other ways, no." Another said, "I doubt it." "The problem cases are all in the lower group and the problem of teaching them is futile." Several affirmative answers are worth quoting. One said, "The slower sections complete less work with a fair degree of thoroughness instead of attempting more work and not understanding it." Another, "The material taught and the method of procedure can be planned to meet individual needs when pupils are grouped homogeneously." A third wrote, "It is possible to plan work for the level of the pupils' ability."

Question two: "Is it easier to teach dull pupils in homogeneous groups?" All answered "yes."

Question three: "Is the problem of discipline less difficult under homogeneous grouping?" All answered "yes" except two who said "no" because of the disciplinary difficulties found in the lowest or slowest groups. One answering "yes" said, "If a child has work he can do, the problem of discipline tends to disappear." Another, "Discipline tends to be less of a problem because methods can be adapted to group needs more easily." A third, "Less difficult surely, for pupils are more interested in their work and are busier under homogeneous grouping."

Question four: "Does the plan of homogeneous grouping tend to develop better study habits?" Three said "no," two were undecided, the others said "yes." Some of the answers were: "Grouping has little to do with study habits." "For the strong sections 'yes' because competition is keener; for the lower sections it is doubtful, as they miss any inspiration they may derive from the study habit of superior pupils." "I believe the influence of seeing others do really good work will develop competition to some extent."

On the affirmative we have these answers: "The teacher can more effectively put the pupils in control of study methods suitable to the group." "More stimulation of bright pupils when with others of their own grade of mentality. Dull children are apt to become discouraged when in classes with bright pupils." "If the work is above or below the level of the pupils' ability, there will be a tendency toward discontent which leads to disorder and little study." "The quicker pupils may be given plenty to do so that they have no time for loafing. The slower ones are not discouraged by having too much to do."

Cooperation Is Encouraged

Question five: "Does ability grouping make it less difficult for the teacher to keep pupils working to capacity?" All said "yes" except one who replied, "Very few pupils ever work to their full capacity."

Question six: "Does homogeneous grouping improve the spirit of cooperation among the pupils?" One did not answer; one said "no difference"; one said "yes for the stronger groups," and a fourth said "yes, more cooperation but quite often this works against the welfare of the school and the proper development that should take place in the individual."

On the other side we have these answers: "There is a greater likeness of interests; hence more cooperation." "Pupils are more apt to offer what they have and can rest assured that their contribution will not appear too trivial or too profound for the others of the group." "Pupils do not learn to cooperate when thrown with others differing greatly in ability." "The spirit of equality tends to create a better spirit of cooperation." "Individuals making up each group have more common interests."

Question seven: "Do you think pupils in brighter groups tend to develop undesirable feelings of superiority?" Eight answered that stronger groups do tend to feel superior due largely to the attitude of parents and teachers. One of the eight said "yes, what of it? It is a natural feeling and need not result in snobbery." Most of the eight feel that the school can conscientiously do much to control this feeling and prevent its having undesirable consequences.

Benefits Outweigh the Weaknesses

On the other side, we have these answers: "I have not seen any evidence of this. I think the clubs largely counteract this tendency." "No, pupils are so well matched, they do not realize how superior they would be if placed with pupils of less ability." "No. Pupils do not have the chance to compare their work with the work done by slower pupils."

Question eight: "Does homogeneous grouping tend to give slow pupils more self-confidence?" One replied "No, it makes inferiority complexes permanent. It makes antagonistic attitudes." All others replied "yes." One said, "The standards of work can be made low enough for the slow pupils. To accomplish a task gives a child confidence." Another said, "Slow pupils are afraid to express themselves when with superior pupils." Another answered, "Yes, they do not constantly see themselves in comparison with those who do so much better than they."

Question nine: "Does homogeneous grouping give each child a better opportunity to make the best social progress of which it is capable?" Doubtful, four. "Yes," four. Remainder "no." Some of the answers were: "Slow pupils are put in sections where they have nothing in common except mental ability." "No. Pupils in the low sections are handicapped in their social progress." "Pupils in the low groups miss the influence of contact with well trained children." "No. This is the only argument against homogeneous grouping. It does not give the pupils a chance to mix with those with whom they will no doubt come in contact later."

On the other side were the following answers: "Yes. Pupils have an opportunity to become leaders which they would never have in heterogeneous groups." "Yes. All are happier with those of their own level and therefore make better social progress."

The Bright and the Slow Both Benefit

Question ten: "Do bright, medium or slow groups benefit most by homogeneous grouping?" Seven said "slow," six "bright" and five "no difference." Following are some of the answers: "The bright because work is seldom interrupted on account of discipline." "The slow because they get more individual attention." "Equally, for all are working to capacity."

Question eleven: "Would you like to see homogeneous grouping continued next semester?" All voted "yes," for the reason that it was "more desirable for teachers and pupils." Some of the answers were: "Advantages outweigh disadvantages." "Gives the slow pupil a chance as he is not handicapped by a feeling of inferiority." "Heterogeneous grouping would retard both bright and dull pupils." "It solves our problems better than any other method."

I have quoted these answers somewhat in detail because they offer concrete data upon a topic that is all too often treated as an entirely theo-

retical proposition. These teachers, with rather better training than the average and with considerable experience, are dealing with pupils who are typical of those found in the industrial centers of our country. Most of these teachers have had several years of experience with both heterogeneous and homogeneous groups. Their answers indicate that they have taken the questions seriously, have considered them thoughtfully and have given as their conscientious opinion that, while there are possible objections to the homogeneous grouping, as a whole the benefits outweigh the weaknesses and they are unanimously in favor of retaining the plan.

Promoting Desirable Social Participation

From the point of view of "social participation," let us summarize:

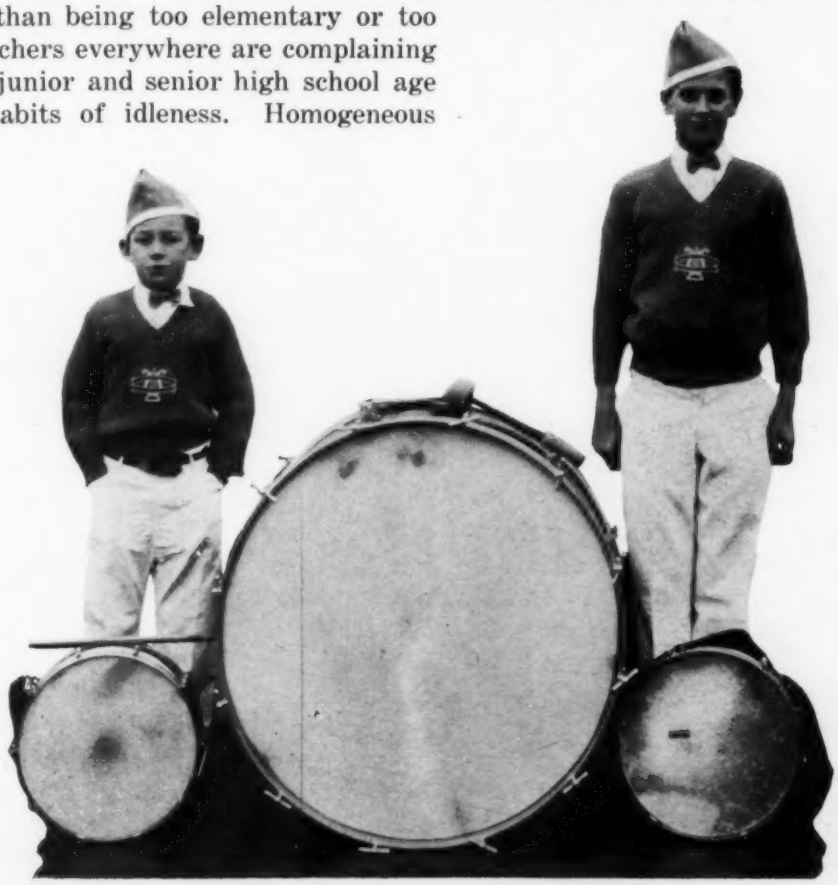
1. Homogeneous grouping, by bringing together pupils of similar development and maturity, enables the teacher to plan the work of the classroom to meet the needs of the group. The very fact that the work is adapted to the group promotes participation. No pupil is eager to participate when the work is much above or below his level.

2. Homogeneous grouping, when carefully organized and tactfully supervised, promotes desirable social participation by placing the pupils in a situation where the work challenges their best efforts rather than being too elementary or too advanced. Teachers everywhere are complaining that pupils of junior and senior high school age are forming habits of idleness. Homogeneous grouping offers one effectual remedy for this evil.

3. Homogeneous grouping promotes desirable social participation by freeing slow pupils from the embarrassment caused by the presence of superior pupils. As the slow pupil experiences the joy and satisfaction of successful participation, he receives a powerful stimulus toward increased effort in the future.

4. By means of homogeneous grouping superior pupils are freed from the tendency to look down upon those in the classroom who are slow in their mental processes and inclined to make ludicrous mistakes. We all know the problem that comes when a teacher seeks to hold superior pupils attentive and courteous while slower pupils are helped through an oral recitation. This is not conducive to desirable social participation on the part of the superior pupils.

5. Homogeneous grouping promotes desirable social participation by helping to do away with the influence of the slow pupils in a heterogeneous group in the direction of antisocial behavior and poor scholarship. These slow pupils are usually the older and larger ones of the group because the compulsory education law keeps them there. They are the discipline cases and in a heterogeneous group sap the strength of the teacher and frequently rob the serious, well intentioned pupils of the results they have a right to expect from the time that they spend in the recitation period.



Through membership in the school band, these seventh and eighth grade boys make valuable contacts with their fellow pupils.

Hand Washing Facilities as an Aid to Health Education

Reports from 435 superintendents reveal the types of soaps and towels in use in their schools and the person to whom the purchasing task is delegated

HOW the health education program of public elementary schools is dependent upon the provision and careful supervision of hand washing facilities is shown by a recent study, in which replies were received from more than 435 different school superintendents.

Liquid soap is apparently the favorite type of soap, and is reported in use in 1,987 schools of 93 different systems. Bar or cake soap was reported for 1,155 schools of 17 different systems. Thirty schools of 6 systems report the use of powdered or flaked soap in dispensers. Seventy-five schools report the use of both bar or cake soap and liquid soap. In a few schools the provision of machines that automatically dispense small individual bars of soap for a penny apiece is reported.

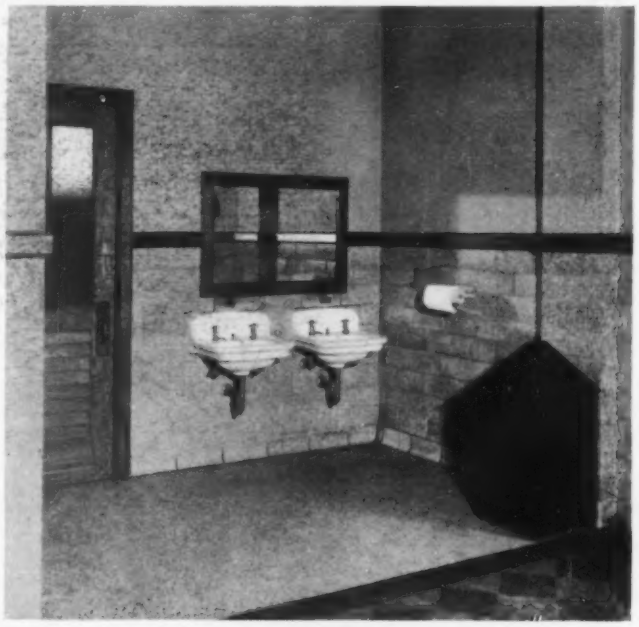
Paper Towels Lead in Popularity

Paper towels are easily favorites for drying hands, and are reported for 2,687 schools of 95 different school systems. Cloth towels are in use in 28 schools in 5 systems. Both paper and cloth towels are in use in 415 schools. A few schools also report the use of hot air drying machines instead of towels.

In all the foregoing reports only elementary schools are covered.

This survey shows clearly that the superintendent of schools purchases practically all cleansers used not only by pupils but also by janitors for the cleaning of floors of rooms and corridors, for cleaning toilets and wash bowls, for dishwashing in school cafeterias and for school laundries. In 282, or 65 per cent of the schools, the superintendent of schools buys all cleansers. Other buyers listed according to the number of schools reporting each official as buyer of cleansers are as follows: superintendent of buildings and grounds, 52; chief engineer, 10; janitor, 6; purchasing agent, 19; business manager, 9; clerk of board of education, 8; secretary of board of education, 5; superintendent of schools and superintendent of buildings and grounds jointly, 9; recommendation of chief engineer to superintendent of schools, 8.

Miscellaneous purchasing officials reported by one or two schools are as follows: chairman of janitors and supplies; agreement by superintendent and chief engineer, with bids to board; purchase by superintendent on requisition from chief engineer; superintendent and supply committee jointly; school office; purchasing department on recommendation of using agency; district committee; superintendent of supplies; superintendent of schools and secretary of board jointly; purchasing committee of board; superintendent and purchasing committee jointly; home economics department; superintendent and athletic coach jointly; superintendent of buildings and grounds, jointly with coach; purchasing agent on requisition of superintendent.



This easily accessible recessed washroom does away with much loitering in toilet rooms.

Supervisory Duties Performed by Small School Superintendents

The authors base their conclusions on a study made of the duties performed by 126 heads of small school systems of Texas

By FRED C. AYER, Professor of Educational Administration, The University of Texas, and JAKE J. HENDRICKS, Superintendent of Schools, Kerens, Texas

THIS article deals with a group of duties of superintendents of small schools that pertain more or less directly to the improvement of instruction and that are frequently classified as supervisory duties. A previous article[1] published in The NATION'S SCHOOLS presented an analysis of the duties of public school superintendents that are sometimes technically classified as administrative duties.

The superintendent's supervisory duties will be considered here under four heads: (1) the supervisory duties most commonly performed by superintendents in small cities; (2) the supervisory duties performed by school officers other than the superintendent; (3) the amount of time given to supervisory duties, and (4) the effect of the size of the school upon the number, distribution and type of supervisory duties performed.

How Data Were Gathered

The present study involves the supervisory activities of 126 or about one-half of all the superintendents of small school systems in Texas. The enrollments of these small school systems range between 160 and 1,600. After a preliminary study of the various check lists that have been made of supervisory duties, 46 duties were selected as being specifically appropriate to the supervisory practices in small cities in Texas. A careful check was then made of the actual performance of the 46 duties by each of the 126 superintendents.

The results of this inquiry are shown in Table I. The 46 duties are listed in order according to the number of superintendents performing them, the most commonly performed duty being listed first. Thus we find that the duty, "confer with individual teachers" is most commonly performed (97 per cent) and the duty, "organize experimental work in the evaluation of tests and methods" is the least commonly performed (29 per cent).

Wide Variety Noted in Supervisory Activities

Judging from this list of supervisory activities it is evident that the function of supervision looms large in the general program of superintendents in small cities. There is considerable difference in the relative popularity of certain well known supervisory devices and activities. The inspection of instruction and giving help in disciplinary matters are activities of practically universal performance. Criticizing instruction, directing teachers' meetings, helping with methods and similar technical activities pertaining to instruction are performed by eight or nine out of every ten superintendents. The curriculum, instructional materials and tests and measurements receive relatively less attention, but the only familiar supervisory devices that fall below 50 per cent in general performance are arranging teacher intervisitation and organizing demonstration lessons.

The mere fact that a supervisory duty is performed by a large percentage of superintendents does not prove that it is desirable. A number of studies[1] have been made concerning the desirability of various supervisory practices. Generally speaking the duties most commonly performed are important but there are frequent exceptions. Certain supervisory duties that have been rated by competent judges to be of primary value receive little attention by a majority of superintendents. Again,

[1]Ayer and Hendricks, Analyzing Duties of Superintendents of Small Schools, The NATION'S SCHOOLS, Sept., 1930.

[1]The Duties of Supervisory Officers, The Department of Superintendence Eighth Yearbook, chap. 3, pp. 19 to 48, National Education Association, 1930.

it should be emphasized that supervisory duties that are desirable in one community are not necessarily desirable in another. Supervisory programs may vary from year to year, and the particular duties performed in person by any one superintendent are necessarily subject to the special objectives set up for accomplishment and the assistance received from other supervisory officers.

Generally speaking, the list of duties presented in Table I covers a desirable field of supervisory activities for small city superintendents. It reveals nothing concerning the amounts of time devoted to the various duties or to the parts played by other supervisory officers. It will be well at this point to consider certain data that touch upon this aspect of the supervisory program.

The chief supervising officer other than the superintendent in the small city system is the building principal. Only 25 per cent of the schools included in this study employed a supervising teacher, and still fewer (9 per cent) employed regular supervisors. Compared with the superintendent of schools, the small city principal performs decidedly fewer supervisory duties. This situation is shown in Table II which includes the supervisory duties that were performed by 25 per cent or more of the building principals employed in the cities under investigation in this study. The table shows that only 20 of the 46 supervisory duties performed generally by small city superintendents, as listed in Table I, are performed by as many as 25 per cent of the building principals. None of the entire 46 duties is performed by as many as one-half of the principals, the most popular duty being, "plan exhibits of school work," which is performed by 47 per cent of the principals. Further analysis of Table II makes it evident that the building principal in the small city school system has comparatively little to do with actual classroom instruction. Most of the duties listed pertain to discipline or other items which, while relating to teachers, have more or less of an administrative aspect.

Why Principals Seldom Supervise

The lack of participation by principals in supervision is brought about largely by the fact that most of these principals are full-time teachers and are also generally in charge of athletics and other extra-curricular activities. The paucity of time given to direct supervision of instruction is manifested by the fact that only a third of the principals confer with individual teachers and less than a fourth inspect instruction, two duties almost universally performed by small city superintendents.

The relative importance of the superintendent as the chief supervising officer in small city systems is given added emphasis when we examine the type

TABLE I—SUPERVISORY DUTIES OF 126 SUPERINTENDENTS IN SMALL TOWNS

Duty	*Per Cent*	*Duty*	*Per Cent*
Confer with individual teachers	97	Prepare instruction to teachers	82
Adjust teacher-pupil differences	96	Read literature on curriculum construction	78
Inspect instruction	95	Examine teachers' marks	77
Instruct teachers in discipline	95	Rate teachers for promotion	76
Plan teachers' meetings	94	Enroll teachers in teacher organizations	74
Confer with principals and supervisors	94	Assist teachers to find materials	73
Discuss topics in teachers' meetings	93	Visit other schools	73
Criticize instruction	93	Help teachers to make out daily schedules	72
Help teachers solve special problems	93	Suggest methods of correlation	69
Study causes of failure	92	Construct list of curriculum aims	68
Direct teachers' meetings	91	Select list of professional magazines	67
Distribute teachers' loads	90	Look over lesson plans of teachers	66
Suggest devices to teachers	89	Interpret intelligence tests	66
Explain curriculum to staff	87	Instruct teachers in scoring and evaluating tests	65
Inspect daily schedule of teaching	86	Organize testing program	60
Instruct teachers in room management	86	Plan exhibits of school work	53
Make out courses of study	85	Arrange for intervisitation of teachers	48
Suggest professional reading	85	Administer tests	46
Instruct teachers in methods	83	Give intelligence tests	41
Examine textbooks	83	Arrange demonstration lessons	38
Initiate new teachers	82	Grade intelligence test papers	38
Confer over test results	82	Organize experimental work in the evaluation of tests and methods	29
Establish uniform marking systems	82		
Explain remedial devices to teachers	82		

of supervisory work performed by the relatively few supervising teachers (25 per cent) and supervisors (9 per cent) now being employed. This is shown in Table III which gives a list of the ten supervisory duties most commonly performed by

TABLE II—SUPERVISORY DUTIES PERFORMED BY 25 PER CENT OR MORE OF THE BUILDING PRINCIPALS

Duty	*Per Cent*
Plan exhibits of school work	47
Help teachers make out daily schedules	45
Discuss topics in teachers' meetings	44
Examine textbooks	44
Adjust teacher-pupil differences	41
Instruct teachers in discipline	39
Confer over test results	38
Help teachers solve special problems	37
Study causes of failure	37
Grade intelligence test papers	37
Confer with individual teachers	34
Suggest devices to teachers	32
Assist teachers find materials	32
Administer diagnostic tests	31
Instruct teachers in room management	30
Give intelligence tests	30
Interpret intelligence tests	27
Make out courses of study	25
Examine teachers' marks	25
Look over lesson plans of teachers	25

these two types of school supervisory officers.

Strangely enough, the duties performed by these two groups are almost exactly the same but they are quite different from those favored by the superintendents. Five out of the ten pertain to "tests and measurements." The duties most often performed by supervisors and supervising teachers are among those least often performed by the superintendents of small schools.

Taken as a group, these 126 small city superintendents perform on the average as many supervisory duties as the public school administrators, including superintendents and principals, who have been reported in other studies of a similar character. They do not, however, spend more time on these duties. As a matter of fact they spend considerably less time on supervision than do the elementary principals in large city school systems. A review of the ways in which public school administrators distribute their time according to four different studies is shown in Table IV. The first three of these studies relate to small city superintendents. As is shown in the next to the last column in Table IV, these small city superintendents spend on the average from a fourth to a third of their time in teaching. The average amount of time that superintendents in the three groups give to supervision varies from 13 to 21 per cent.

Contrasted with these superintendents, the supervising principals devote only 3 per cent of their time to teaching but give 24 per cent to supervision. Other investigations show that elementary principals who have no teaching duties in certain cities give as high as 36 per cent of their time to supervision. This amount of time seems to be beyond the possibilities of the small city superintendent and indicates the need for additional supervising officers.

Fourteen Duties That Demand Time

Inquiry as to the particular supervising duties requiring the greatest amounts of time on the part of the small city superintendents revealed the fact that 14 duties, all performed by more than 75 per cent of the 126 superintendents, stood out as being the greatest time consumers. These follow: confer with individual teachers; inspect instruction; help teachers solve special problems; adjust teacher-pupil differences; instruct teachers in discipline; study causes of failure; confer with principals and supervisors; plan teachers' meetings; suggest devices to teachers; discuss topics in teachers' meetings; direct teachers' meetings; criticize instruction; instruct teachers in room management; distribute teachers' loads.

It is worthy of note that this list of duties compares closely in character with the 14 supervisory duties reported by Dyer[1] as being rated of major importance and which were performed by 75 per cent or more of the elementary school principals

TABLE III—SUPERVISING DUTIES COMMONLY PERFORMED BY SUPERVISORS AND SUPERVISING TEACHERS IN SMALL TOWNS

Grade intelligence test papers
Plan exhibits of school work
Discuss topics in teachers' meetings
Examine testbooks
Administer diagnostic tests
Give intelligence tests
Interpret intelligence tests
Make out courses of study
Visit other schools
Confer over test results

[1]Dyer, Williams P., Activities of Elementary School Principals for the Improvement of Classroom Instruction, Teachers College, Columbia University, Contributions to Education, No. 274, 1927, pp. 24 to 27.

TABLE IV—DISTRIBUTION OF THE TIME OF SUPERINTENDENTS*

Type of Administrator	*Supervision*	*Administrative*	*Clerical*	*Teaching*	*Other Duties*
126 Small City Superintendents[1]	19	22	19	24	16
66 Small City Superintendents[2]	13	22	13	33	19
110 Small City Superintendents[3]	21	26	16	25	22
614 Supervising Principals[4]	24	40	20	3	13

*Figures indicate percentage of school day.
[1]The present study.
[2]Hughes, C. L., The Functions of the School Superintendent in Theory and Practice, American School Board Journal, October, 1923, pp. 40 to 42.
[3]McGee, Ralph K., The Working Schedule of the Superintendent of Schools, American School Board Journal, May, 1928, p. 66.
[4]Seventh Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, p. 189.

reporting in his study. Dyer's list follows: discusses general principles of teaching; discusses special methods; suggests how to adapt methods to individual differences; suggests how to improve pupils' attitudes; suggests how to improve study habits; suggests how to improve lesson plans; suggests remedial procedure for weak pupils; suggests how to organize routine work; holds individual and group conferences; sends teacher to visit; suggests how to improve attendance; makes special promotions; instructs janitor; suggests how to improve discipline.

A number of important facts have become apparent from this study and other studies that have been made of the effect of the size of a school system upon the performance of supervisory duties. One is that in the smallest and largest school systems within the range of the so-called small city, the superintendents assume fewer duties than in the middle sized groups. For example, in the present study the superintendents in schools with enrollments under 400 performed on the average 72 per cent of the listed supervisory duties; those in schools with enrollments of from 400 to 1,000 pupils averaged 80 per cent, while those in schools with enrollments of over 1,000 averaged 75 per cent. The probable reason for the lower average performance on the part of the superintendents of the smallest and the largest groups is that the superintendents of the smallest group, on the one hand, devote a larger share of their time to teaching, while the superintendents of the largest group, on the other hand, delegate more of their supervisory duties to principals, supervisors and supervising teachers than do the superintendents in the medium sized schools.

When the supervisory duties are considered separately, the variation in performance of certain duties due to the size of the school system is greatly increased. A number of important duties such as "confer with individual teachers," "direct teachers' meetings," "study causes in discipline," and several others appear to be performed by essentially the same numbers of superintendents whether the school enrollments are small or large.

Other supervisory duties, on the contrary, are

TABLE V—SUPERVISORY DUTIES MARKEDLY INFLUENCED BY SIZE OF SCHOOL SYSTEM*

	Percentile Performance in Schools With Enrollments of			
Duty	*399 or Fewer* 1	*400-699* 2	*700-999* 3	*1,000 or More* 4
Visit other schools	50	70	92	83
Arrange for intervisitation of teachers	32	42	66	56
Rate teachers for promotion	46	86	88	83
Select list of professional magazines	46	70	73	74
Construct list of curriculum aims	65	72	77	52
Instruct teachers in methods	75	86	96	74
Inspect daily schedule of teachers	83	86	81	100
Assist teachers find materials	53	74	84	73
Administer diagnostic tests	50	46	48	39
Organize experimental work in the evaluating of tests and methods	14	31	30	43
Plan exhibits of school work	38	48	65	66

*Distributed according to enrollment in school; figures indicate the percentage of superintendents performing each duty.

markedly influenced by the size of the school population. This is shown in Table V. A number of duties such as "visit other schools," "select list of professional magazines," "explain curriculum to staff," "organize experimental work in the evaluation of tests and methods," "plan exhibits of school work," and a few others exhibit tendencies toward more frequent performance the larger the enrollment in the school system. An occasional duty such as "administer diagnostic tests" exhibits a tendency toward less frequent performance the larger the school system.

TABLE VI—THE EFFECT OF ENROLLMENT UPON PERFORMANCE OF SUPERVISORY DUTIES BY PRINCIPALS

Type of School	*Enrollment*	*Average Percentage of Principals Performing Each Duty*
Class 1	165 - 399	15
Class 2	400 - 699	17
Class 3	700 - 999	36
Class 4	1,000-1,600	40

These striking tendencies in one direction or the other afford substantial evidence, as did the findings in the article on administrative duties, of the deep-rooted differences that exist in the supervisory and administrative practices in different sized school systems of these 126 small towns in Texas.

The effect of the size of the school upon the number and type of supervisory duties delegated to principals in whole or in part by the superintendents of small school systems is even more noticeable. When the school systems are divided into four classes on the basis of enrollment, it is discovered that the principals, on the average, perform more supervisory duties the larger the school. The percentile performance on the part of the average school principal in each of the four groups is revealed in Table VI.

How Size of School Affects Duties

The forty-six duties in the original checking list are performed on the average by 15, 17, 36 and 40 per cent of the principals in the four classes of schools, respectively. The same tendency to increase in performance according to the size of the school is shown when the duties are considered separately as in Table VII. In this table are listed 15 of the duties performed most frequently by the small city principals, which are also included in the two lists previously given, the first including the 14 duties that require the greatest amount of the small city superintendent's time, and the second including the 14 supervisory duties listed by Dyer as being of major importance for elementary school principals to perform. The increase in performance of supervisory duties by the principal is gen-

TABLE VII—PERCENTAGE OF PRINCIPALS WHO PERFORM OR WHO ASSIST THE SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE PERFORMANCE OF CERTAIN IMPORTANT SUPERVISORY DUTIES*

Duty	*Percentile Performance in Schools With Enrollments of*			
	399 or Fewer 1	*400-699* 2	*700-999* 3	*1,000 or More* 4
1. Confer with individual teachers	21	22	53	52
2. Plan teachers' meetings	11	14	26	35
3. Inspect instruction	14	10	29	35
4. Direct teachers' meetings	11	14	29	43
5. Discuss topics in teachers' meetings	28	46	53	60
6. Distribute teachers' loads	11	12	37	26
7. Criticize instruction	11	14	29	47
8. Suggest devices to teachers	18	26	37	52
9. Help teachers solve special problems	21	34	40	56
10. Instruct teachers in discipline	18	34	47	60
11. Adjust teacher-pupil differences	21	36	55	56
12. Instruct teachers in methods	7	10	26	43
13. Instruct teachers in room management	11	20	59	38
14. Study causes of failure	18	40	41	47
15. Explain remedial devices to teachers	11	14	33	35

*Distributed according to enrollment. Figures indicate the percentage of principals performing or assisting in the performance of each duty.

erally consistent in going from the smaller to the larger schools.

It is apparent from the foregoing data that the smallest schools within the range of small city schools do not receive the supervisory attention from superior officers, either principals or superintendents, that is given in the larger schools. In the interest of equality of educational opportunity this situation calls definitely for some type of administrative relief in the way of supervisory aid from county or state agencies. Judging from the success that has been experimentally demonstrated[1] to follow the initiation of systematic county supervision, the county unit plan of supervision offers a genuine remedy for the present supervisory laxity that prevails in the smallest of our city school units.

Summarizing the foregoing facts with reference to the supervisory duties of superintendents in small city school systems, it is found that:

1. Small city superintendents perform a wide array of supervisory duties, the majority of which are concerned with discipline and instructional technique rather than with the curriculum or educational measurement.
2. Building principals and supervisory officers other than the superintendent perform comparatively few supervisory duties. The ones performed are those less commonly performed by superintendents.
3. Small city superintendents spend less time on supervision than do large city principals but both groups perform essentially the same type of supervisory duties.
4. Superintendents perform more supervisory duties in schools that are of average size than in the largest and smallest schools. Principals, on the other hand, perform more supervisory duties the larger the school.
5. The smallest of the small city schools receive on the whole comparatively little supervision.

"To Present a Pen by the Feather End"—

A rare book entitled "School House Architect in the United States" written by Dr. Henry Barnard in 1854 was found recently by L. W. Reese, Ohio State Department of Education. This book contains many pictures and plans of school buildings including a very full description of an octagonal type of schoolhouse. In addition to these plans and designs several pages are devoted to apparatus and equipment for high schools.

Perhaps the most interesting chapter in this book deals with regulations and rules for the conduct of pupils. Complete and careful directions are given the pupils on how to scrape their feet at the door and wipe them on the mats. Several paragraphs deal with how to hang up on hooks caps and outer garments. Two paragraphs deal with spitting on the floor. An interesting treatise is given on the use of knives. The evils of marking, cutting, scratching, chalking on the school house, fences and walls occupy a whole page. A few of the regulations of 1840, of the famous Chauncey-Hall School, Boston, are interesting. They are divided in two parts—Requisitions and Prohibitions. Among the requisitions were:

Boys are required to be punctual at school.

To scrape their feet on the scraper and to wipe them on every mat they pass over on their way to the hall.

To bow gracefully and respectfully on entering and leaving the hall and any recitation room when a teacher is present.

To quit the neighborhood in a quiet and orderly manner.

To present a pen by the feather end, a knife by the handle, a book right side upward.

To bow on presenting or receiving anything.

To stand while speaking to a teacher.

To fill all vacant time with ciphering.

To point the forefinger of the left hand at each letter or figure of the slip of copy and the feather of the pen toward the right shoulder.

To rest the body on the left arm while spelling and keep the eye directed toward their own slates.

To sit erectly against the back of the chairs and to direct their attention to the instructor.

Among the prohibitions were:

Boys are forbidden to buy or sell, borrow or lend, give, take or exchange anything except fruit or other eatables without permission.

To read any book in class except such as contains the reading lesson.

To have in his possession in school any book without the teacher's knowledge.

To go out to play with his class when he has had a deviation.

To spit on the floor.

To climb any fence, railing or ladder, etc., about the school.

To mark, cut, scratch, or chalk or otherwise injure or defile any of the building.

To take out inkstand, meddle with the contents of another's desk, or to unnecessarily open or shut his own.

To use a knife except on conditions prescribed.

In fine, to do anything that the Law of Love forbids.

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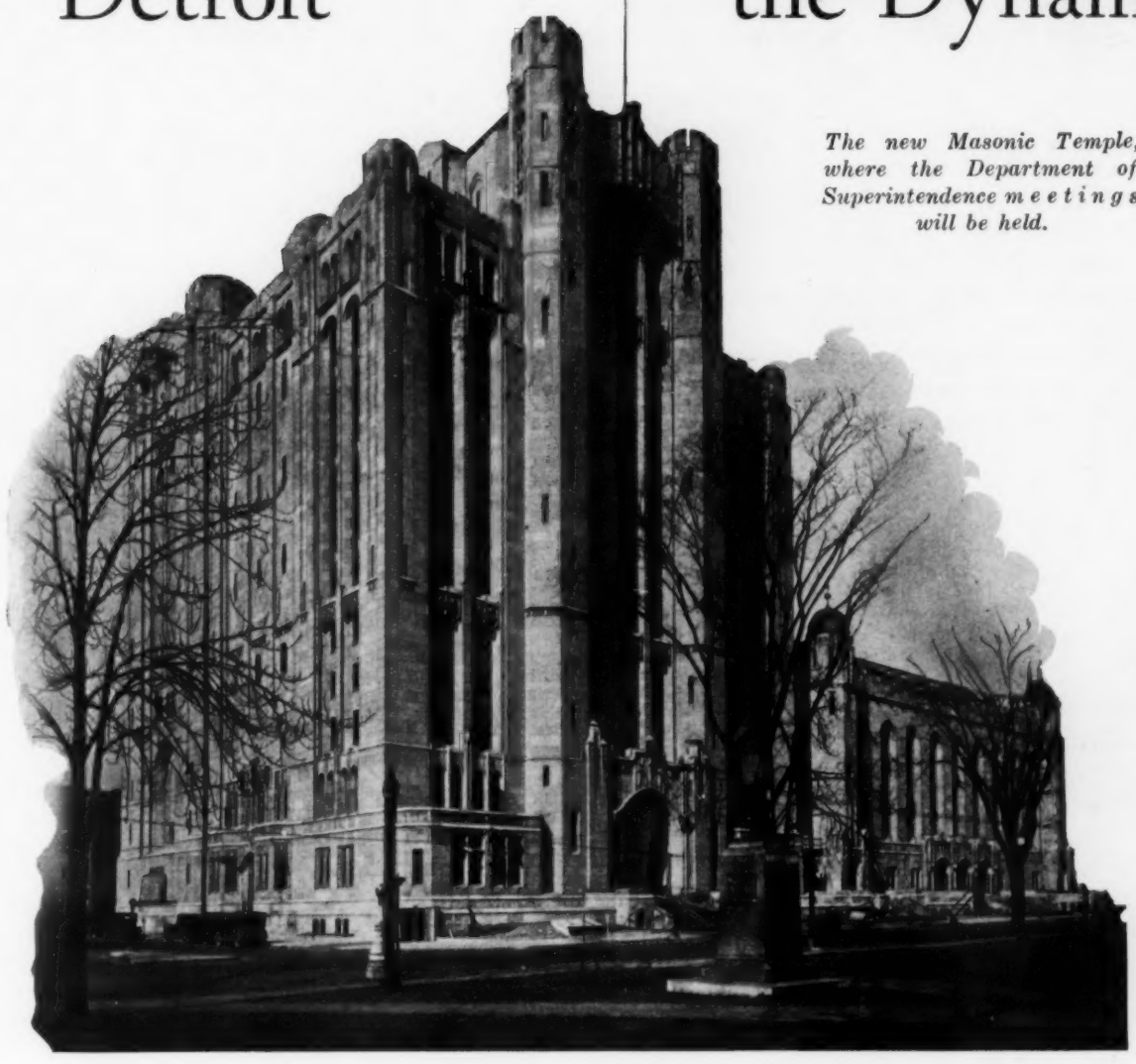
[1]The Department of Superintendence, Eighth Yearbook, op. cit., pp. 99 to 106.

Detroit the Dynamic



The new Masonic Temple, where the Department of Superintendence meetings will be held.

For those superintendents who attend the N. E. A. meeting February 22 to 26, the fourth largest city in America offers boundless attractions and sincere hospitality

By PHILIP LOVEJOY, Assistant Secretary, Rotary International, Formerly Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Hamtramck, Mich.

"F. O. B. Detroit" has been the basis of a worldwide recognition of great activity for the metropolis of Michigan. Another thing that has been of great advertising value to the city, is the word "Detroitism," which was coined by Ramsey Muir, British statesman and economist, to symbolize the notable American spirit of achievement.

Of as much importance, however, in the development of Detroit's national reputation has been its efficient system of public schools, under the capable direction of that genial personality, Frank Cody. Educators from over the entire world journey to Detroit to study in detail this marvelous system caring for more than 250,000 pupils from practically every race and nation of the earth.

Possibly it was this tremendous educational

achievement that caused the National Education Association to accept the invitation of Detroit for the February meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Another reason may have been Frank Cody's own invitation extended at the conclusion of his year as president of the department. At any rate, thousands of educators are to be given the opportunity to study first-hand this school system in all its ramifications.

Detroit is a past master at entertaining. Thousands come annually to its confines and marvel at its sights. Detroit has grown enormously. It has, in fact, increased its population 100 per cent every ten years for the past one hundred years. Detroit is intensively industrial. Its products reach the four corners of the earth. Its profits have been in the billions. Its competition is severe.

Nevertheless the city has a soul, which is more

than can be said of every great industrial center. Go down the magnificent Woodward Avenue on the night of December twentieth any year and notice the lights in the windows of the Eaton Tower at Grand Circus Park. Several busy executives have given orders that their office lights are to be left burning all night. Ten or fifteen floors high and two windows wide except at the center of this string where they are ten windows wide, a white cross of light is shining forth in the blackness. It is industry's reminder that Christmas seals must again be purchased if lives at the Tuberculosis Sanitarium are to be saved. Verily a city with a soul—for over there at the right is the famous golden tower of the Book Building. On top of its majestic height is a double red cross scintillating forth in its neon splendor.

Your eye travels down to the base of this superb structure and you are struck with awe at the brilliance of Washington Boulevard which engineers tell us is the best lighted street in the world, having wrested the glory from State Street in Chicago. Not because of a civic rivalry was this street made more brilliant than the Windy City's State Street. It was the thing to do, for—well, look in the shop windows. Of course the shops over on Woodward are equally attractive and many a little shop around the corner has a challenging invitation to all passers-by.

If you have arrived in the city before the frosty weather you have seen the magnificent sight in Grand Circus Park. The famous Edison fountain, dedicated during Light's Golden Jubilee in 1929, blazes forth with its ninety-six combinations of color. Thousands are enchanted by the beauty of this memorial to the great man who was rudely thrown off a railroad train less than twenty-five miles from this very spot. An attempt at compensation has been made—and a grateful world applauds in appreciation of this gesture.

Of course Detroit does things with a sense of completeness and finality. Woodward Avenue originally laid out in 1808 by Judge Woodward is now approaching its originally planned width of 204 feet. True, downtown Woodward is not yet that wide, but plans are now under way to slice off some of the near-by structures and widen the thoroughfare that stretches to the north.

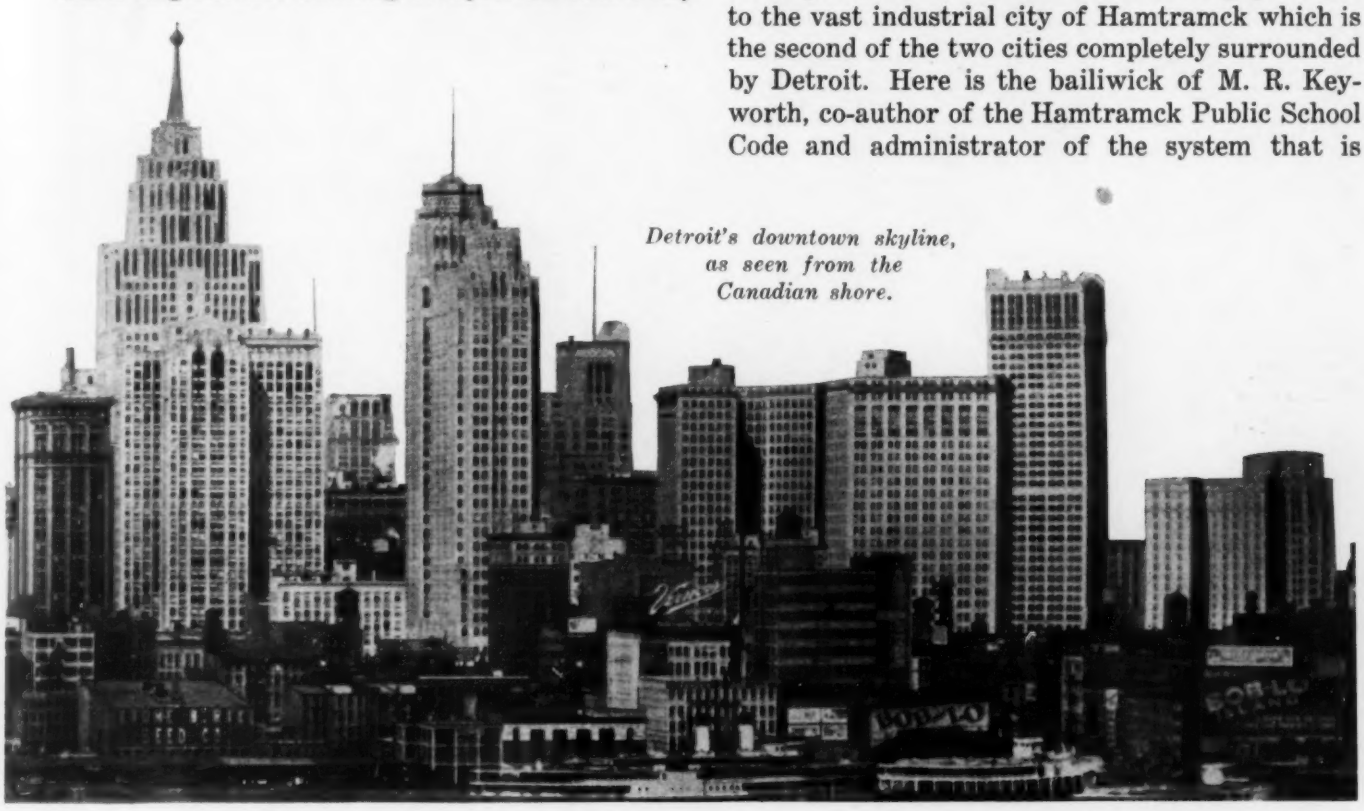
Drive north now from the Campus. You pass the Fox Theatre, the second largest in the country. Offsetting it are magnificent churches manned by such men as Ward, Emerson, Rice, Magary (now resigned) and DeWitt Jones. If you visit Detroit on Sunday any of these men, not to forget others on near-by streets, will give you a friendly reception and show you the spiritual strength of the city. All denominations are enrolled.

You pass the famous Detroit Civic Theatre once the Temple Beth-el. This you discover is one of the finest theaters architecturally in the state.

Next you enter the quadrangle known as the Art Center. Here on the left is the great Detroit Public Library while on the right is its companion

building, the Art Institute. Both are entrancing structures.

Continuing north you come to the Northern High school where Ed Miller used to be principal. Farther on you arrive at Highland Park, one of the two cities within Detroit. Here Dr. I. M. Allen will be your hospitable host and show you a most complete school system. The Highland Park High school building occupies an entire city block. Still farther north you pass Palmer Woods, a superresidential section.



Detroit's downtown skyline, as seen from the Canadian shore.

Continuing your trip you pass the Michigan State Fair grounds on the right. Each September, products from all over Michigan are displayed here so that the children of Detroit may not lose the common touch. It is likewise desired that they may be familiar with chickens, cows and horses—for you recall that Detroit is the Motor City. A little farther on you arrive at the city limits at the Eight Mile Road. Here Woodward Avenue widens into a majestic superboulevard. The central portion is occupied with a grassed esplanade in the middle of which are two trolley car tracks. On either side of this center there stretches a band of concrete ribbon wide enough for five lanes of traffic. Thirty-five miles is the speed limit and a sign up the road a short way reads: "You are now on the finest highway ever built by man."

You can roll on into a splendid hinterland, but it is of Detroit that we write, and so .... But first you must go two miles farther north for a visit to the Detroit Zoological Gardens. Here in a vast acreage, animals from the distant places of the earth have been corralled in a unique manner, for there are no fences between you and the bears or the lions. You and they are in God's great open air. Only a little moat separates you. (Because of construction now in progress the park is closed during the winter months.)

Back to Detroit you now go. At the Eight Mile Road you turn to the left and east to pay a visit to the vast industrial city of Hamtramck which is the second of the two cities completely surrounded by Detroit. Here is the bailiwick of M. R. Keyworth, co-author of the Hamtramck Public School Code and administrator of the system that is noted for its heterogeneousness. You will be interested in a chat with "M. R." You will want to visit his new Copernicus Junior High school which includes many educational innovations.

Leaving "M. R.'s" domain you journey down Joseph Campau in the heart of one of the greatest industrial centers in the world. You see the great Dodge factory, a division of the Chrysler Motor Corporation. You pass the Truscon Paint Laboratories, those of the Acme White Lead, the Champion Porcelain Factories, the Bull Dog Electric, the great Packard Factories and others.

Now you have arrived at Grand Boulevard. At the right your eye catches a glimpse of the tower of the great Fisher Building, now but one-third completed. This unit is one of three. Here is a dream building in marble from forty different quarries. In the copyrighted publication concerning this transmutation of American achievement into terms of beauty we read:

"The Arcade averaging thirty feet wide and forty-four feet in height . . . exhibits a harmonious blending of many varicolored marbles

The Masonic Temple Is Inside the Circle

Detroit Hotels

1—Barlum
3—Book Cadillac
13—Briggs
4—Brunswick
28—Detroit-Leland
7—Fairbairn
8—Fort Shelby
42—Fort Wayne
5—Grant
11—Imperial
18—Lincoln
14—Madison-Lenox
16—Norton
15—Norton Palmer (Windsor, Can.)
17—Palmetto
81—Prince Edward (Windsor, Can.)
19—Royal Palms
20 LaSalle
68—Seward
21—Statler
22—Stevenson
23—Strathmore
24—Tuller
73—Wardell
25—Webster Hall
77—Wolverine
27—Abington
29—Alden Park Manor
30—Andoria
34—Belcrest
31—Belvedere
2—Berkshire
44—Buckingham
38—Dixieland
39—Eddystone
40—Edison
10—Gotham
50—Jefferson
51—Jefferson Hall
56—Lee Crest
53—Lewis
52—Lexington
54—Library Park
55—Majestic
57—Malvern
9—Martha Washington
58—Montcalm
60—Oxford
61—Park Avenue
80—Parkstone
62—Paul Revere
64—Priscilla Inn
65—Roe
67—Sage
69—Spa Baths
70—Madrid
71—Victoria
75—Whittier
84—Wilcrest
85—Willard
76—Windsor

Public Buildings

82—Arcadia
84—Armory
86—Board of Commerce
87—Cass Tech. High
88—City Hall
58—Colony Club of Detroit —Convention Hall
89—County Building
90—Detroit Ath. Club
91—Detroit News
92—Detroit Times —Detroit Auto Club
93—Elks Temple
95—Fisher Building
94—Free Press
97—General Motors Bldg.
96—Graystone
98—Knights of Columbus
9—Maccabee's Bldg.
99—Masonic Temple
83—Moose Temple
100—Municipal Court and Police Headquarters Olympia
101—Orchestra Hall
102—Postoffice
103—Receiving Hospital
85—Water Board Bldg.
104—Women's City Club
105—Women's Exchange
106—Y. M. C. A.
107—Y. W. C. A.

Theaters

3—Adams
1—Paramount
15—Detroit Civic Theater (formerly Bonstelle)
16—Cass
19—Colonial
95—Fisher
7—Fox
17—Gayety
2—Madison
5—Michigan
13—Oriental
14—Shubert Detroit
11—Shubert Lafayette
4—State
21—United Artists
12—Wilson

Depots and Docks

A—Union Depot
B. & O. R. R.
Penna. R. R.
Pere Marquette
Wabash R. R.
B—Great Lakes Transit Co.
C—D. & C. Nav. Co.
D—Ashley & Dustin Line
E—White Star Nav. Co.
F—Detroit Pt. Huron S. S. Co.
G—Bob-Lo Boats
H—Windsor, Can. Ferry
I—Belle Isle Boats
J—Gd. Trunk Depot
Gd. Trunk R. R.
Can. Natl. R. R.
K—Northern Nav. Co.
K—Chicago, Duluth & Georgian Bay Line
L—Interurban Depot
M—Walkerville Ferry
N—Inter. Bus Depot
O—Mich. Central Depot
Canadian Pacific
N. Y. Central

Explanatory Note: The black squares indicate hotels; the black circles, theatres; the white squares with numbers, public buildings, and the white squares with letters, docks and depots.

and bronze ornamentation. The floor is of American and European marble. The beautiful marbles which lend the variety of their color to the Arcade come from America and from Europe. There are warm red marbles from Germany; cool green marbles from Austria; rich, brown and black marbles from Belgium; black and gold marble from France; white and black marble from Italy, and a beautiful rare marble of rose tint from Spain. From America there is the golden vein Tavernelle marble from Tennessee, the Cardiff green from Maryland, the Carthage marble from Missouri, the Verdi Antique from Vermont and the Mar Villa from Maryland, and acting as a background to this color is the neutral grayish gold St. Genevieve golden vein marble."

You are asked to return at night to see the structure as a glimmering, scintillating icicle shooting upwards to the clouds. Its golden tower, its red and black and white lighting and its shimmering beauty tell you the reason why the A. I. A. awarded Albert Kahn the 1929 prize for this architectural vision. You are magnetized. Never in the history of man did such a structure ever rear its lofty height heavenward. The great concourse again attracts you. You leave the lobby faced with magnificent panels and are transported quickly through space and time to an ancient Mayan temple. You are in an edifice six thousand years old, quiet and serene. The stillness is broken only by the clack of a macaw in all his brilliance. You marvel at the exotic treatment. Upward you look into the heavens at the three-deck ceiling variegated in lighting effects of dozens of colors, and your earthly cares fall away. You are in a dream world.

New Masonic Temple to House Meetings

You traverse the subway under Grand Boulevard and visit the General Motors Building, said to be the second largest office building in the world. You spend some time here, but you suddenly ask, Where is the N. E. A. meeting to be held? You must hurry on. Down Second Boulevard you go. You notice that this avenue is flanked with trees, is parallel to Woodward Avenue and provides five lanes of traffic. You learn that Detroit is contemplating a speed allowance of thirty-three miles an hour on such streets. Quickly you reach Temple Avenue. Here you stop and at the left enter the great Masonic Temple, the week's home of the Department of Superintendence.

Breaking away from precedents, this temple utilizes the Gothic motif. In all there are twenty-eight units in the building grouped in three major divisions. Provisions have been made for fifty Masonic groups so that each can operate independently. The main lobby is a work of art, the decorative scheme having been adapted from a room in an old castle in Palermo, Sicily. Details of the structure you will see for yourself. You will be interested to learn that the auditorium of this Masonic Temple is one of the finest public halls in the United States, having a seating capacity of about 5,000. Because of the arrangement, an intimate contact is maintained between the audience and the stage. This stage, by the way, is the second largest in the United States, the proscenium arch being 64 feet wide and 32 feet high. Downstairs you visit the fountain room, an expansive circular room providing space for 1,800 at a banquet and for 1,500 couples when dancing. A half floor below is the smaller Crystal Ballroom capable of seating 900 diners. All in all, we learn that upwards of 5,000 persons can be seated at one time in this building and can be served within forty-five minutes.

For exhibit space there are 61,000 square feet available. The N. E. A. officials made a wise choice in selecting this building. But you want to see a little more of Detroit before the convening of the afternoon meeting. Outside again you find yourself a few short blocks from where you started.

Detroit's Skyscrapers Are Numerous

You wonder at some of the great buildings you see. What is that buff colored building over there with the variegated tiles? Walking nearer, you discover that the Union Trust Company has taken a bold step in getting away from the ordinary dreariness of neutral shades in office buildings. Here, stretching thirty stories upward, is a monument to the financial strength of Detroit. Inside is one of the most striking banking lobbies imaginable. Red marble from a quarry in Africa gives the main effect. Outside you are surrounded by other magnificent buildings such as the Buhl Tower, the Penobscot, the Stott, the Barlum and the First National Bank, the Book-Cadillac and the Statler. You are told that a new executive mansion is being erected for Frank Cody and his staff in Library Square. You learn that Detroit has the usual coterie of theaters, both movies and legitimate.

You continue your sightseeing. You visit Belle Isle, the city's playground just east of Jefferson Avenue in the Detroit River. Riding out Jefferson you pass the Pewabic Pottery which fashions many of the tiles for the world's greatest buildings. Farther on you enter Grosse Pointe and are cheerfully welcomed by Dr. Samuel M. Brownell, superintendent of schools. His high school building in early colonial architecture is a sight not to be missed. Of especial note are the lunch room,

said to be the finest public school lunch room in America, and the swimming pool. Outside you are charmed at the vast estates and residences, many of which belong to the great industrial leaders of the motor city.

Down Jefferson Avenue through the center of town and out west you pass great automobile tire factories and continue on until you come to the vast acreage of the Ford Motor Company at its River Rouge Plant. Here more than 10,000 complete cars may be the product of a single day. You are free to visit this great factory and guides gladly escort you. Some of you will desire to journey on farther to the great Ford Airport, where many passenger planes arrive and depart daily. Special rides will be arranged for the delegates. You are told that you must not fail to visit the great engineering laboratories of the Ford Motor Company. A little farther on is the early American village reconstructed by Ford.

Harvey Lowrey will want you to stop in Dearborn on the way back to Detroit. He will want you to see his $3,000,000 high school, splendid in its appointments.

When you have returned to Detroit, Frank Cody will want you to visit many of the excellent public schools. The Roosevelt quadrangle in particular is of interest. There are many special schools and clinics. Guides will be on hand to point out all the special features.

There is no end to what you will want to see in Detroit. One brief visit is far too short a period. Some of you will want to see the Y. M. C. A. buildings, said to be as fine as any in the country. Were it not in February, some of you would want to visit the three great outdoor subaqueously lighted swimming pools. Many of you will want to see the Olympia, which seats 15,000. A hockey game may be in progress and if so 10,000 persons will likely be in attendance.

Hotel Facilities Are Excellent.

Some of you will wonder about hotels. Recently we received information concerning membership in the Detroit Hotel Association and we discovered that more than $200,000,000 is invested in Detroit hotels and that more than 25,000 rooms are available.

Last November (1930), Detroit opened the second longest subaqueous tunnel for vehicular traffic. It is one of three international tunnels in the world. The other two are just a few miles from this one. Constructed at a cost of nearly $25,000,000, its 5,135 feet begin almost in the heart of Detroit and end almost in the heart of Windsor, Canada. If one prefers not to cross the river by the tunnel, there are the ferry boats and the great Ambassador Bridge. The value of these means of crossing is realized when it is stated that a steamship passes Detroit every three minutes in season. This river tonnage is more than 75,000,000 annually.

Detroit is dynamic. It does things in a big way. It has increased its population 100 per cent every ten years in the last hundred years. It is now the fourth city in America. It has a population of 1,641,718. It has more than 2,200 manufacturing plants. In one year, the auto factories of Detroit produce 3,420,000 automobiles. The capacity of the downtown garages in Detroit is 9,670 cars. Two of these garages care for more than 2,500 cars. The city has 329 public schools, 13 private, and 121 parochial. There are more than 7,000 teachers on the public school pay roll.

Some of the City's Advantages

Seventy per cent of the population of the United States live within overnight distance from Detroit. This includes such cities as Washington, New York, St. Louis, Louisville and all intervening territory. The Michigan Highway Commission keeps every road in the state open all winter long. It is therefore possible to drive any time in winter. The snowfall average for Detroit during the entire month of February is about ten inches, which should add zest to the meeting. The temperature of Detroit during the last week in February, 1930, ranged from 28 degrees to 56, with an average of 41.7.

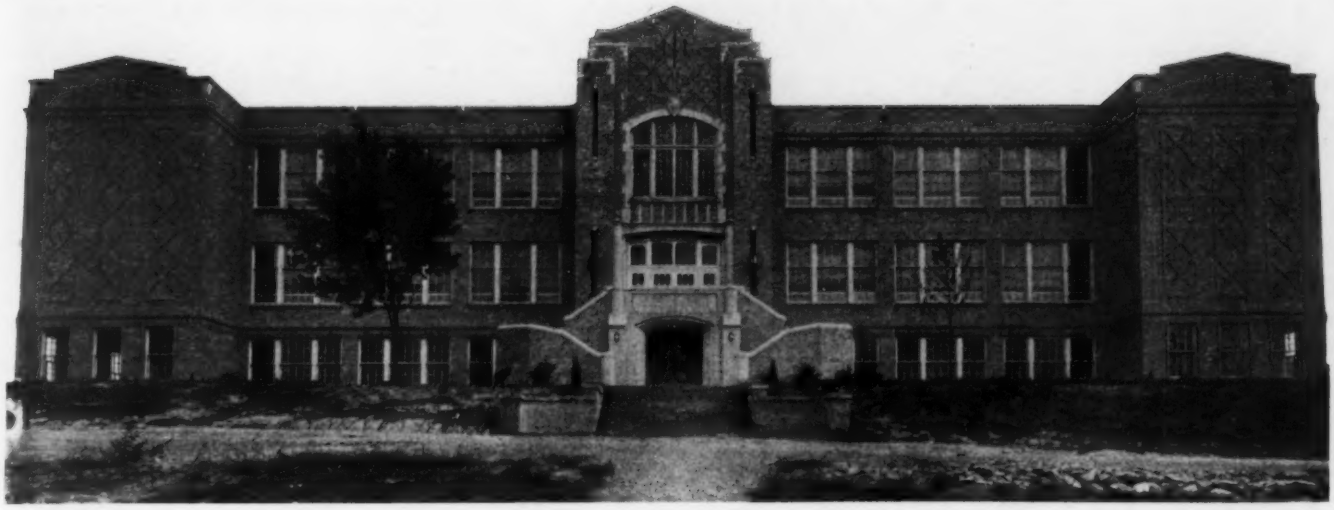
Winter sports are popular—ice boating on Lake St. Clair; skiing at Rochester, a few miles north of Detroit; ice hockey at the Olympia and much skating. Communication between Detroit and Windsor offers no difficulties, three methods of transportation now being available.

The regular Wednesday meeting of the Rotary Club is to be given over the Schoolmen's Rotary Club luncheon and it is expected that more than a thousand Rotarians will attend. It is planned also to have Schoolmen's luncheons of both the Kiwanis and Exchange Clubs.

Taxicab fares from both the Statler and Book Cadillac hotels to the Masonic Temple are reasonable. The distance itself offers an invigorating walk.

Detroit is hospitable. They do things in Detroit—yet the citizens know how to live normally and happily. You will find them at your service. They are not boastful, but they do believe in their city. And they have experienced great periods of depression. Possibly they know more about this than other cities because here the motor industry is such a vital part of the life of the city.

Detroit extends you a welcome!



A High School That Serves Two Virginia Towns

Because of the steady population growth in Radford and East Radford, Va., the new school has been planned for an ultimate capacity of 1,000 pupils

By D. R. BEESON; Architect, Johnson City, Tenn.

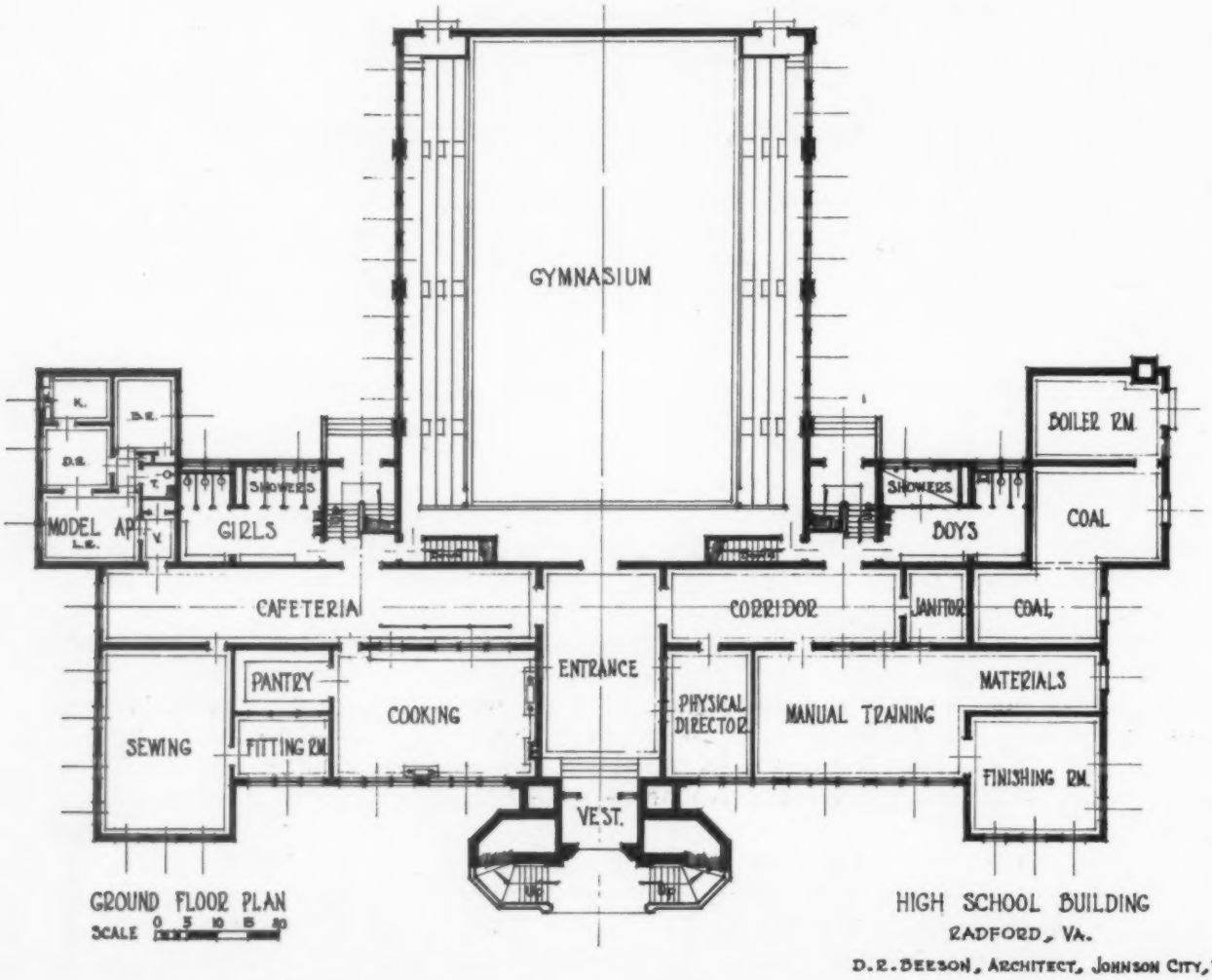
IN THE early nineties there swept over southwestern Virginia, eastern Tennessee and some other parts of the South a furore of speculative development often referred to as the "Boom Times." Cities were laid out at various points, especially in regions suspected of mineral wealth and at the junctions of railroad lines, real and projected.

It was at this time that the town of Radford, Va., was laid out, situated on the New River in Montgomery County, and at the junction of the main line of the Norfolk and Western Railway with its branch line to Bristol, Va.-Tenn. Some ten years later the railway changed its location, throwing the junction some two or three miles farther east, and as a result another town sprang up near the new junction and was called East Radford. Each town had and still has its separate business section and post office but both have the same city government and the same board of education.

The natural dividing line is a deep ravine through which runs a small stream emptying into the New River about midway between the two parts of the city. The residential sections have practically grown together. A municipally owned trolley line connects the two business centers. The population of the entire town—both parts—is approximately 7,000. Its growth in the past has been steady and promises the same for the future.

The grammar schools are well located to care for the school population but until the erection of the new building the high school had been in East Radford, not, of course, a good location for a central high school. This old building contained the office of the superintendent of schools for the corporation. In 1927 this building had become inadequate for the district, both in size and appointments. Something had to be done. The city owned a large tract of land, central to the two parts of the town, the rear part of which had been used for several years for the high school athletic field. It was decided to erect a new high school building on the front of this tract overlooking the river and facing the main street of the town. (The Lee Highway and the trolley line follow this street through the town.) The building site commands an exceptionally beautiful view, with the river below in the foreground and twenty miles of fine rolling country stretching away to the high moun-

The general arrangement of the ground floor gives the left end to the girls for domestic science and the right end to the boys for manual training. The corridors on this floor are wide, the one shown in the picture above being used as a cafeteria with service from the domestic science kitchen.



tains that extend all along the West Virginia line.

A bond issue was voted and the architect was selected by an open competition. When the preferred plan had been studied carefully by W. K. Barnett, superintendent of schools, R. V. Long, head of the architectural department, Virginia State Board of Education, and the architect, the final arrangement was decided upon. During the entire time of planning and construction the close cooperation among these three men was helpful in bringing the project to a successful culmination.

The location decided on placed the front of the building some 250 feet back from the street, leaving about 200 feet between the rear of the building and the athletic field.

Contracts were let in January, 1928, and the building was occupied in January, 1929.

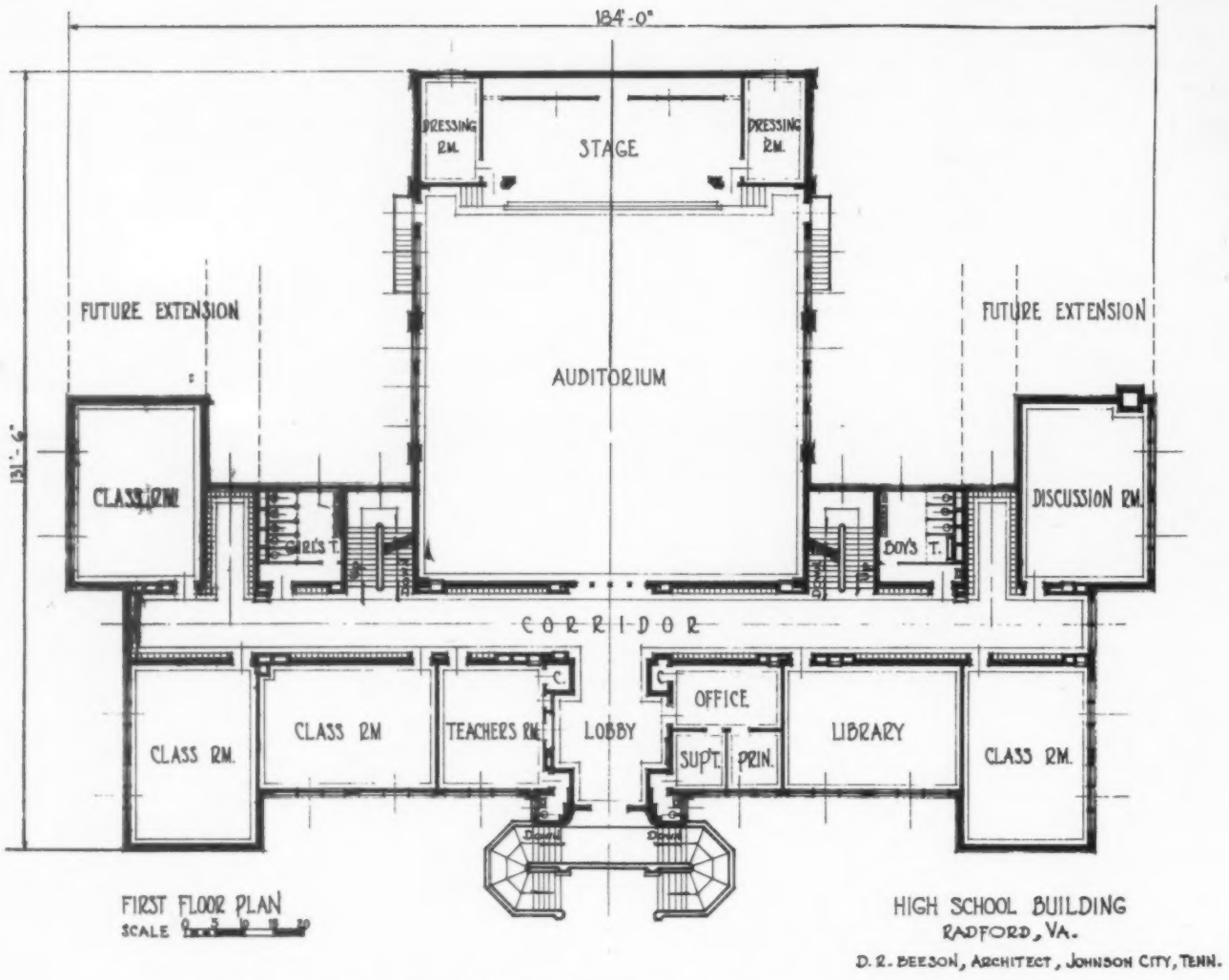
The structure as erected has a capacity of 350 pupils, the present enrollment being slightly in excess of 300. The ultimate capacity of the building as planned, however, will be 1,000, future extension being provided for as shown on the plan of the first floor and extending across the rear of the auditorium. Provisions were also made for the future enlargement of each of the special departments.

The chief reason for allowing for so much expansion is that through this territory—southwestern Virginia, western North Carolina and eastern Tennessee—there are numerous country or county high schools in the rural districts that will be discontinued because of improved transportation facilities, thus centralizing the high school educational plants at fewer points in the larger cities and towns.

The auditorium was built full size in the first contract, except that the balcony was omitted. Eight hundred fifty seats were installed on the main floor, the future balcony being planned to seat about 300. The auditorium was built full size because of the difficulty and expense of the future enlargement of such a room because the city needed a good assembly hall for public gatherings and because the floor space beneath was needed for the gymnasium.

Pressed steel lockers are built into the corridor walls, thus effecting a great saving of space.

In the past few years there has been a pronounced growth of interest in interscholastic basket ball in this section, thus creating the necessity for a good court with adequate accommodations for spectators. The gymnasium was consequently designed to give a 45 by 90-foot clear playing floor with a ceiling height of 20 feet and with bleachers seating about 250 at each side. The playing floor is about ten feet below the level of the ground floor of the building and is reached by separate private stairways from the shower and locker rooms on the ground floor. The gymnasium is lighted from both sides. This room is used for physical educa-



Future additions have been provided for, extending across the rear of the auditorium, as shown in this plan of the first floor.

tion classes during school hours, for various games and contests and for indoor work by the football team. The public entrance to the gymnasium is at the front of the building on the ground floor level and is so arranged that it can be cut off from the balance of the building when it is used for public games or gatherings.

The general arrangement of the ground floor gives the left end to the girls for domestic science and arts and the right end to the boys for manual training. The corridors on this floor are wide, wainscoted with common brick and used for a cafeteria, the service for the present being from the domestic science kitchen.

The first floor has office accommodations for the local superintendent of schools and the high school principal. The balance of this floor is taken up by the main floor of the auditorium, several class and recitation rooms and the library and discussion rooms. The permanent library will be in the future extension. The first short period after lunch each day is a "student activity" period, during which the auditorium is used for music, the gymnasium for games, the discussion room for a consideration of topics of the day and the library for reference work and study.

The science department occupies the left end of the second floor and is built and equipped for standard high school work in the scientific branches. The physics and chemistry laboratory accommodates twenty-four pupils, the biology laboratory, twenty-four pupils and the general science room, forty pupils. The business department occupies two rooms on this floor. The rest of the space is occupied by classrooms and the upper part of the auditorium. There are modern toilet rooms for boys and for girls on each floor.

The construction of the building is semifireproof, the corridors, stairways and boiler and coal rooms being fireproof, with masonry walls and reenforced concrete floors and ceilings. The balance of the building is of frame construction, the plastering being done on metal lath. The auditorium ceiling is carried on steel trusses with a clear span of the entire width of the room; the gymnasium ceiling over the basket ball court is carried on 28-inch steel girder beams over a 45-foot span from the steel H-columns built into the

front of the bleachers. The corridor floors have concrete floor and base, painted. Woods floors are of No. 1 maple.

Outside walls are faced with gray brick, of a medium rough surface and a nice variation of shades. The brick is laid in raked joints and backed with hollow tile. The outside trim is of a light buff cast stone. The architectural style of the building is modified "schoolhouse Gothic," modified chiefly because of the size of the budget.

The plumbing is installed in accordance with the provisions of the best building codes. The toilet stalls are enameled pressed steel; the toilet rooms have floor drains. The waste piping for the physics and chemistry laboratory is acidproof and the tables are piped for gas, compressed air and hot and cold water. Each floor has a standard Underwriters' hose cabinet in the corridor with a 2-inch water connection for fire protection. A 4-inch water supply line serves the building from the city main in the street. Hot water is produced from a tank heater in the boiler room.

The electrical installation is in conduit. The auditorium stage has foot and head lighting with reflectors, wired on separate circuits for different color effects. The auditorium is wired for spot lighting and movies. The switchboard for the auditorium lights, except the exits, is on the stage. The gymnasium is lighted by 16-inch reflectors in the ceiling. These are protected by wire guards. The physics and chemistry laboratory has tables wired for both direct and alternating current. The city service line is A.C., the D.C. wiring is from a motor generator set. Each floor has separate panel cabinets for its circuits, with the exception of the exit lights, which are wired direct from the main switchboard on the ground floor.

Grounds to Be Developed Later

Ventilation is by windows and by a system of gravity ducts in the corridor walls, the circulation being assisted in cold weather by aspirating coils in each duct, heated from the steam mains of the heating system.

Heating is by a two-pipe vacuum system, operated for the present without a pump, the plan being to install the pump later when the size of the building is increased.

Separate mains are run to the auditorium and to the gymnasium, controlled by valves in the boiler room, so that either of these two rooms may be heated independently of the rest of the building. The boiler room has space for two return-tubular boilers, one being installed to care for the present building. The chimney flue was built to accommodate the two boilers.

The construction was done under two separate contracts—one for the general construction including electrical work without fixtures and the other for the mechanical work, plumbing, heating and ventilating. Pressed steel lockers built into the corridor walls were provided by the owner and installed by the contractor for the general construction. The amount of the general construction contract was $70,925.69 and the amount of the mechanical contract was $13,626, making the cost of the building alone $84,551.69. The cost of the equipment was approximately $12,000. Plans for developing and planting the grounds have been made and will be carried out by degrees as the expense can be absorbed.

Recent Ruling on the Use of the Bible as a Reference Book

The state board of education of Washington has decided that it is without authority to act upon a petition filed on behalf of a Seattle family asking that the reading and teaching of the Bible in the public schools of the state be made compulsory.

The board passed a resolution as follows:

"Be it resolved that the state board has no jurisdiction of authority to make a decision of any kind upon the petition because it is a constitutional question, and that it be referred back to the petitioners."

After the meeting of the board its president, Dr. N. W. Showalter, who is also state superintendent of public instruction, stated orally that he had no doubt that the movement to allow the Bible to be used in the schools would eventually be taken to the Supreme Court.

The petition was filed on September 9 by Samuel D. Wingate, Seattle attorney, on behalf of George I. Clithero of Seattle, his wife and their eight children, all of whom are pupils in the public schools. The board was asked to require that the Bible be read at least once every school day in every public school in the state and that instruction be given in the Bible on at least two school days each school week.

The state supreme court has held that under article 1, section 11, which says that no public money shall be appropriated for or applied to any religious worship exercise or instruction, the conducting of religious exercises in the public schools is unlawful. The attorney general's office recently held, in response to a request for a ruling received from Doctor Showalter, that the use of the Bible as a reference book would be contrary to this article of the constitution of the state of Washington.

The NATION'S SCHOOLS

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Editorials

New Allies in the War on Illiteracy

IT IS good news to read that two powerful agencies, Rotary International and the American Legion, are joining hands with educational and other civic agencies in the effort to reduce or completely eliminate illiteracy. A program that will make it possible for these new agencies to assist in this task remains to be worked out, but it is at least heartening to learn that the tremendous energy of both Rotary and the Legion may be available in the new war—a peaceful one this time—against ignorance.

It is conceivable that an illiterate person might keep in touch with human progress and that he might participate intelligently in civic and social affairs, but the chances are all against it. A person who could not read would be likely to make a better citizen fifty years ago than is possible to-day. Our social and political life has become so complicated and the forces that affect us for good or for ill have become so subtle, and so camouflaged, that a man who cannot read is unlikely to be able to understand what is actually taking place in his environment.

Probably not one illiterate in a thousand could resist the efforts of a political corruptionist to secure his adhesion to plans for the personal advancement of the politician. For this reason it seems appropriate that Rotary and the Legion should engage in this tremendously important movement designed to make every American citizen literate. It is impossible to think of any service that these agencies could render to our country that would yield greater results in civic betterment than the elimination of illiteracy.

Helping Teachers in Financial Crises

IN THIS issue of The NATION'S SCHOOLS is published an article dealing with the methods by which teachers obtain funds to tide them over periods of financial stress.

The article is based on an extensive investigation of the operations of loan agencies among teachers and also of plans developed in some places for the assistance of teachers who are in financial need. It points out that although teachers are superior risks so that loans made to them are practically certain to be repaid, they are frequently victims of extortion. They are

made to pay as much as 85 per cent for a loan to meet unexpected expenses due to illness or misfortune of one kind or another. Cases have been reported in which teachers have more than repaid the principal of a loan in a year's interest. The situation is not generally understood, either by educators or by laymen, because educators do not as a rule give publicity to their borrowings.

Mr. McNamara and Mr. Parker in their article have described plans in operation in a number of communities that protect teachers from vulturous loan agencies. They represent different devices for helping teachers over periods of financial stress without demanding a pound of flesh for a loan. These several plans are all feasible and they could be easily put into operation in any city of considerable size or in a county. It may be predicted that superintendents of schools, both city and county, and organizations of teachers that operate for the mutual benefit of their members will be so interested in and stimulated by the data presented in "Giving Battle to High Interest Money Lenders," that they will initiate movements in their respective communities that will result in the provision of facilities for teachers to borrow small sums in time of need without their being tied hand and foot financially thereby.

N·S

Narrowing Provincial Prejudices

NEXT July the World Federation of Educational Associations will convene in Denver. Plans are being made to entertain representatives of something like half of all the teachers in the world. The program for the convention will deal with problems of worldwide timeliness and importance.

The significance of an event like this for the encouragement of peace among the nations of the world and the development of an understanding among peoples cannot be overestimated. The teachers who will attend the convention at Denver cannot fail to have narrow nationalistic points of view and prejudices modified or completely broken down. The World Federation was established for the purpose of helping teachers to acquire world points of view in place of provincial prejudices.

At the same time that the World Federation is making announcements of the great enthusiasm that is being manifested by teachers in all the leading countries over the approaching convention at Denver, the report is received that Italy is reconstructing all its textbooks so as to develop in the young an understanding of and adherence to Fascism. The plan is to indoctrinate the Italian children with the Fascist ideals and with the determination to disseminate these ideals throughout the world and thus extend the influence of Italy. Any representatives of the teaching force of Italy who may attend the convention at Denver will be placed in a trying position, because the World Federation will advise that everything be cast out of textbooks in each country that tends to inculcate misunderstanding and suspicion of and dislike for peoples in other countries.

Genuine progress has been made in the past decade in eliminating from textbooks prejudiced and narrow-minded points of view of nationalistic teachings. It is disconcerting to learn that Italy is reverting to the ancient practice of developing in the young of one nation hostility toward the peoples of other nations, through prejudiced and bigoted teaching in the schools.

N·S

The New Education Fellowship

THE apostles of the new education are manifesting something like missionary zeal in promulgating the new doctrine of freedom for the child and the adaptation of the curriculum to his nature and his needs. Twenty-five years ago one never heard of anything resembling an international organization composed of the leaders in progressive education. The several countries went their separate ways educationally, although American and, to some extent, European educators were going to Germany for light and learning. It was not in the contract, however, that Americans or others should take to Germany the results of experiments or educational discussions occurring in their respective countries.

What a change in this respect has taken place! The new psychology has brought together in bonds of fellowship educational leaders from all the countries. These leaders are responding to the command to go forth into the world and spread the truth as they see it. And the most gratifying phase of this extraordinary movement is that all the enthusiasts see the truth in substantially the same way. They see that the school should be centered around the child; that conceptions of the values of studies and of modes of discipline arrived at without a study of the child's interests, responses and capabilities should be completely abandoned; that rigid examinations as a test of educational attainment should be eliminated; that individuality in temperament and in intellectual power should constitute a fundamental part of every educational program; that the curriculum should be worked out on a dynamic principle, changing as social conditions change and

being adapted to local situations and to local requirements.

The arrival in America of the well edited report of the Fifth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship at Elsinore, Denmark, in August, 1929, ("Towards a New Education," edited by William Boyd) is an event of importance to all who are engaged in or interested in the spread throughout the world of the fundamental principles, ideals and objectives of American education. It should be comforting to those who are administering educational systems with a view to attaining American ideals and objectives to be able to read the views of educational leaders throughout the world. There is almost complete harmony among all those who view education from the standpoint of the new psychology, which originated in America and which has been developed in this country. It is playing a larger rôle in determining our educational programs than is true anywhere else throughout the world. There is nothing mysterious about the new psychology; it is an outgrowth of the application of naturalistic methods of training and education to the study of childhood and of youth.

A reading of "Towards a New Education" will convince anyone that when educators study child life without preconception or prejudice, with a view to discovering what effect different methods of instruction and discipline exert on the child at different stages in his development from infancy to maturity, they arrive at substantially the same conclusions with respect to what should be taught, how it should be presented to the pupil so that he will master it most readily and will derive the most value from it, and how much freedom should be granted him to handle himself so that he will get the most out of his life and will not trespass upon the rights of others.

N·S

Education for Leisure

YEARS ago Herbert Spencer, putting to himself the question—"What is most worthwhile in education?"—placed training for leisure last as of least consequence in an educational program. To-day we come pretty near to placing it first. In some sections of the country there is more discussion now of education for leisure than of any other type of education. All sorts of people have come to the conclusion that as a nation we are not using our leisure wisely or profitably. It is apparent that in the future we will have more leisure here in America than we have had in the past, and so almost everyone is asking, "How can we train the young so that they can utilize their leisure in beneficial rather than in detrimental ways?"

Machines are doing work to-day that was formerly done by human brain and muscle. Henry Ford recently stated that in his shops over 90 per cent of the work is performed by machines. Every day new mechanical devices are invented for the purpose of supplanting human hands. In order to meet the new conditions, leaders are proposing that workers have more free time for play and relaxation than they have had in the past, and already some groups of workers have an eight-hour day and a five-day week. This is tremendously significant for the educational administrator because he must adjust his school program to meet the new situation.

Several university students who have recently come through the schools were asked recently how they spent their leisure during the regular academic year and also during the long summer vacation. Only a small proportion of these students gave evidence of knowing how to use their leisure beneficially, according to the views of the older generation at any rate. Most of them cannot be content during their leisure hours to be quiet, or to be appreciative of artistic or literary or social ideals. There are exceptions, but they are decidedly in the minority.

The wise use of leisure requires, first of all, that the members of the younger generation be brought up so that they will not demand continual excitement when they are released from their set tasks. Our American life is making young people so tense that they cannot relax; neither can they be satisfied with appreciation of the culture that has been accumulated by their ancestors and passed on to them for their enjoyment and edification. If any reader of The NATION'S SCHOOLS would like to have first-hand knowledge regarding the interests of those who have been trained in the schools, let him go to a university campus and find out what kind of interests the students cultivate and in what indulgences they participate when they are free from the compulsory tasks assigned them.

Any effective program of preparing young persons to make good use of their leisure must begin early. They must be taught to be appreciative and to gain enjoyment from reflection instead of eternally seeking nervous excitation. Fortunately, at the present moment there is beginning to be a revival of out-of-door life and of games and plays. This is all to the good, but we must go further and cultivate an appreciation of the culture that has come down through the ages and is available for all of us in literature, in art, in music, in architecture and in the beauty and mystery of nature.

Teacher Turnover in California and Its Significance

This study which presents facts for California and summarizes what is known regarding turnover in several states should stimulate critical investigation of turnover in other states

By C. G. SHAMBAUGH, Mayfield, Calif.

THIS article is a brief report of a study dealing with two phases of teacher turnover. The first phase pertains to the number and percentage of teachers in secondary schools in California who leave the profession. The second analyzes the shifting of teachers in five typical counties of California. For the sake of clearness of presentation, each phase will be discussed separately.

An analysis of the extent of teacher drop-out in California, revealed that the most important factor creating a demand for new teachers is the relatively large number of teachers leaving the profession each year. A definite knowledge of the extent of teacher drop-out would be of value to the administrators of teacher-training institutions, to educational counselors, to students who are choosing a vocation and to the taxpayers who must to a large extent pay for the training of new teachers to replace those who leave the profession.

What the Study Shows

The purpose of this section of the study is to determine the percentage of California teachers who are leaving the teaching profession from year to year. Four types of teachers are included, those employed in the junior high school, in the senior high school, in the evening high school and in the junior college.

The years chosen for the study are 1913-14, 1919-20, 1926-27 and 1927-28. These four years, so distributed, are sufficient to show the trends that may be present in this phase of the teaching situation. The year 1913-14 was chosen in order to obtain a record of the teachers who dropped out before the World War. The school year 1919-20 was included, since it is near the center of the period extending from 1914 to 1927 and should reveal the influence of the war. The two recent years 1926 to 1928, inclusive, indicate the situation at the present time.

In this study a drop-out teacher for a given year is considered as one who is teaching in the given year but drops out at the close of the year. For example, a drop-out teacher for 1913-14 means a teacher who taught in 1913-14 and who did not teach in 1914-15.

How Data Were Collected

The data were taken from the California secondary school directories[1] for the years included in this investigation. These directories contain the names of all secondary teachers who were employed in the Fall of each year and the type of school in which they were teaching. Two of these directories were published by the California State Board of Education, while the others were published with the cooperation and under the direction of the California State Department of Education. All the data were furnished by high school principals or by county superintendents. Thus the information given in the California directories is more reliable than if the data had been collected from the various teachers by some private individual.

In order to check the accuracy of the recent directories, a list was made of the names of all high school teachers who were reported for 1926-27 and not reported for 1927-28, but whose names appeared again in the directory for 1928-29.

[1] D. C. Heath and Company, compilers, Heath's Directory of California Secondary and Normal Schools for 1913-14 and 1914-15, D. C. Heath and Company, San Francisco. A. C. Olney, compiler, Directory of Secondary and Normal Schools for the school year 1919-20 and for the school year 1920-21, prepared under the direction of A. C. Olney, commissioner of secondary schools. California State Printing Office, Sacramento. Horace M. Rebok, managing director, Directory of Public Secondary Schools in the State of California for the school year 1926-27 and for the school year 1927-28, published by the California Society for the Study of Secondary Education, Berkeley, Calif. Horace M. Rebok, managing director, California School Directory, November, 1928, published by the California Society of Secondary Education, Berkeley, Calif.

Since the names of these teachers did not appear in the directory for 1927-28, their non-appearance may be due to two causes. Either they had a leave of absence from teaching for one year, or they were teaching and the directory failed to report them.

The list contained 208 names of teachers. A special letter was sent to 102 of these. One of the questions asked in the letter was whether they were teaching in the Fall of 1927. To the 102 letters sent, 70 answers were received. Of the 70 teachers who replied, 32, or 45 per cent, were teaching in the Fall of 1927, although their names were not reported in the directory. If the same percentage of the remainder of the 208 teachers not reported were teaching, there would be 95 teachers whom the directory had failed to report. Of the 9,456 high school teachers reported in the directory for 1926-27, these 95 teachers constitute just 1 per cent. Therefore, in estimating the number of teachers who dropped out of the profession at the close of 1926-27, a correction of 1 per cent was made. Since the same company published the directory for the following year, it may be assumed that the same number of teachers were overlooked. Therefore, a similar correction was made for that year also.

The main steps in the procedure of determining the percentage of drop-outs were as follows:

TABLE I—PERCENTAGE OF TEACHERS LEAVING EACH CLASS OF SCHOOL*

Year	Junior High School	Senior High School	Evening High School	Junior College	Total
A	*B*	*C*	*D*	*E*	*F*
1913-14 ..	12.8	16.7	11.3	....	15.3
1919-20 ..	15.1	17.0	25.1	....	17.5
1926-27 ..	11.3	13.5	11.0	10.8	12.9
1927-28 ..	11.1	13.0	....	10.3	12.4

* The junior college was not listed separately in the directories for 1913-14 and 1919-20. The evening high school teachers were not listed in the directory for 1928-29. Therefore the number who taught in the evening high school in 1927-28 and dropped out in 1928-29 could not be determined. The percentage of drop-outs given in Column F for 1927-28 does not include those teaching in the evening high school. In determining the number of drop-out teachers in the junior college in 1926-27 and 1927-28, corrections were made for those junior colleges which were changed to state institutions or were combined with high schools.

The names of teachers classified in the secondary school directory as teaching in the different types of schools were checked in the index of the directory for one year against a comparable list appearing in the index of the directory for the following year. All the names appearing in the alphabetical list in the index of the secondary school directory for 1913-14 were checked against the index of the directory for 1914-15. Thus a list was obtained of all teachers who taught in 1913-14 and who were not reported the following year. The same technique was followed in determining the drop-outs for the three other years included in this study.

Checking Drop-Out Teachers

After the list of names that appeared one year and not the following year had been secured, it was not known whether these teachers had actually left the teaching profession or had changed their names through marriage and were still engaged in teaching. Therefore, the list of so-called drop-outs was checked with the records[1] at the state department. This check was made for the one year 1927-28. The findings revealed that 3.8 per cent of the names on the drop-out list for 1927-28 did not appear in 1928-29 because of change through marriage. Upon the assumption that approximately the same number of teachers would be married each year, the same percentage was used in correcting for the other years included in this study. After the list had been corrected to include those who had changed their names and were still teaching, the remaining number were considered as the drop-outs for that year.

The drop-out teachers were classified on the basis of the type of school in which they were employed. If a teacher was reported as teaching in two or more types of schools, such as a high school and a junior college, she was listed as a drop-out in each school.

Since the directories include only the teachers who were holding positions in the Fall of each year, all the significant data are expressed in terms of percentages of the number of teachers teaching and reported at the time the information was gathered for the directories. A summary of these data is presented in Table I.

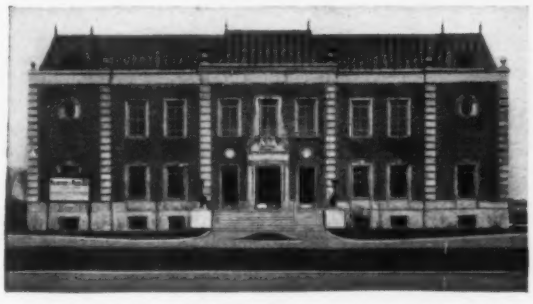
The figures in Columns B, C, D and E of Table I indicate the percentage of teachers who dropped out of each of the four classes of secondary schools, while Column F contains the percentage of the total number of all secondary teachers who dropped out.

Some duplication exists in the percentages given in Columns B-E inclusive. This is because some teachers are reported as teaching in more than one school. Unless this fact is borne in mind, the percentages for the different classes of schools may be misleading.

[1] The records used were the County Superintendents Report of Teachers' Warrants Drawn (a) for six months ending June 30, 1928; (b) for six months ending Dec. 31, 1928. These are part of the records of the Retirement Division of the State Department of Education, Sacramento.

GOOD FOR PLAY
GOOD FOR WORK

SIMONS PARK FIELD HOUSE



RIIS PARK FIELD HOUSE

BLACKHAWK PARK FIELD HOUSE

KELVIN PARK FIELD HOUSE

SCHOOL executives who are planning to build or remodel a gymnasium will be interested in one item of the equipment of the Northwest Park Field Houses, in Chicago. All four buildings illustrated have gymnasium floors of Sealex Battleship Linoleum.

Durable, shock-absorbing, sanitary—Sealex Battleship, Jaspé and Inlaid Linoleums have long been known as ideal floors for classrooms and corridors. They succeed equally well in the gym.

For basketball and handball, Sealex Linoleum gives an excellent playing surface. In addition to being a good floor for walking, playing, working, and dancing—it is *safe* . . . a safe floor to fall on! Physical directors tell us the type of injury known as "floor burns" is practically eliminated when this resilient, "no-splinter" material is installed.

An interesting point in the gymnasium shown is that the marker lines are as permanent as the floor itself. They are linoleum, actually inlaid in the floor. For further information on resilient school floors, address our Department 61.

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A more reliable estimate of the extent of teacher drop-out is expressed by the percentages appearing in Column F, for the following reasons: the percentages in Column F are secured by counting only once all of the secondary teachers who leave the profession and by counting the total number of teachers engaged in all the secondary schools in a given year, as is shown by the list of names appearing in the index of the directory. No duplication exists in either of these numbers. Consequently, the percentages in Column F are correct for all of the secondary schools combined.

TABLE II—RELATION OF THE TURNOVER OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS TO THE SIZE OF THE SCHOOL*

Year		Size of School on the Basis of the Number of Teachers Employed: 4 or Less	5-9	10-19	20 or More	Total
A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1926-27	Number	19	84	123	243	469
	Turnover	6	36	33	37	112
	Per Cent	31.6	42.9	26.8	15.2	23.9
1927-28	Number	25	82	209	455	771
	Turnover	9	27	44	52	132
	Per Cent	36.0	32.9	26.6	11.4	17.1

* The totals for 1926-27 do not include Santa Clara County. "Number" refers to the total number of teachers in all five counties employed in a given size of school; "turnover" refers to the number of teachers in all five counties changing positions; "per cent" indicates what percentage the turnover is of the total number of teachers. A wide variation of teacher turnover was found in the various counties. It ranged from 11.8 per cent in Santa Clara County to 40 per cent in Siskiyou County for 1927-28.

Again, in considering the data in Column F, we find a tendency toward a decrease in the percentage of teachers leaving the profession. The directory for 1913-14 shows 15.3 per cent leaving the profession, while in 1919-20, 17.5 per cent of the teachers dropped out, and the percentages for the two more recent years are 12.9 and 12.4. The increase of percentage for 1919-20 may be reasonably attributed to the readjustment after the World War. If the fourteen years elapsing from 1913-14 to 1927-28 are considered, an average decrease of 0.2 per cent is found for each year.

The decrease for the past eight years has been approximately 0.6 per cent, with a decrease of 0.5 per cent for the two more recent years. Thus the rate of decrease in the percentage of teachers leaving the profession has shown a negative acceleration since 1919-20. In view of these facts, a large decrease in the immediate future does not seem probable.

Little accurate and scientific investigation of this problem has been made, hence only a small amount of comparable materials is available.

Hollis P. Allen[1] estimated that 13 per cent of the high school teachers employed in California for the school year 1921-22 were required to replace those leaving the profession at the close of the school year 1920-21. If he had taken the number of teachers employed in 1920-21 as a basis, he would have shown that 14.3 per cent of the teachers withdrew from the profession at the close of that year. Again, Mr. Allen considered only the teachers who were paying into the state retirement fund and did not include a large number of teachers who were not required to contribute to this fund. Since the members of the latter group were not interested in retirement, they probably were rapidly leaving the profession. Had all the high school teachers been included in Mr. Allen's estimate, the number of teachers leaving the profession no doubt would have been more than 14.3 per cent.

The recent actuarial report made by the California Public School Teachers' Retirement Salary Commission[2] gives the following figures which will throw some light on the length of service of teachers in California: Of 1,000 women who begin their high school teaching at the age of twenty-two, 42 per cent leave the profession before the end of five years, 61.5 per cent drop out before the close of ten years of service and only 18.1 per cent remain in the service thirty years or more.

TABLE III—PERCENTAGE OF TURNOVER OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS*

State Investigated	Year	Author	Small Schools	Larger Schools	All High Schools
A	B	C	D	E	F
California	1927-28	Shambaugh	36.0	11.0	17.1
California	1921-22	Allen	....	....	24.9
Iowa	1922-24	White	50.0	11.0	37.0
Minnesota	1923-24	Seeder	....	....	31.0

* While the classification of schools is not the same in each study, yet the data are arranged to show the variation in the extent of turnover between the small schools and the large schools.

In a recent study of teacher demand made in

[1] Allen, Hollis P., Teacher Turnover and the Placement Problem, American School Board Journal, vol. 70, No. 5, May, 1925, pp. 45-46.

[2] Report of the California Public School Teachers' Retirement Salary Commission, 1929, California State Printing Office, Sacramento, p. 47.

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New York,[1] it was found that 20 per cent of the high school teachers for the school year 1925-26 were new in the profession. The number of teachers needed to replace teachers who had dropped out is not stated.

From the results of a study of teachers' supply and demand reported by the state department of public instruction of North Carolina,[2] I computed that 20 per cent of all public school teachers employed in 1925 withdrew from teaching at the close of that year. While the figures for North Carolina include elementary as well as high school teachers, yet the withdrawal of high school teachers in this state is probably as much as 50 per cent greater than the annual drop-out of high school teachers in California.

In his report of a detailed study of Vermont teachers, Robert McCurdy Steele[3] states that the typical high school teacher "is entering her third year of teaching, but has taught only one year in her present position; she will teach 2.5 years more." Thus the average length of service in Vermont is approximately five years. This indicates that the withdrawal of teachers in Vermont is about 20 per cent and is equal to that of North Carolina and much greater than that of California.

In discussing the extent of teacher turnover and its relation to the size of the school, the term "teacher turnover" will be used here in reference to the shifting of teachers from one school system to another. This does not include teachers who have been promoted from one teaching position to another without leaving the school system.

What Is Occurring in California

In order to ascertain the extent of teacher turnover and its relation to the size of the school, a special investigation was made of the high schools of five counties of California, including Mendocino, Siskiyou, San Joaquin, Santa Clara and San Mateo counties, covering the years 1926-27 and 1927-28. These counties were chosen because it was thought that they would present a fair sample of what was taking place generally in the rural and semirural section of the state.

The method of ascertaining the turnover of teachers is explained by the following example: To find the number of high school teachers in San Joaquin County who in 1927-28 changed from the positions they held in 1926-27, the teachers' names in each high school district in the county directory for 1926-27 were checked against the names in each district in the county directory for 1927-28. Any name that appeared in a given district in 1926-27 and that did not appear in that district the following year was considered as belonging to a teacher who had shifted to another position. This list was submitted to the county superintendent of San Joaquin County, who checked the names of teachers who were still in the same position, but had changed their names through marriage. The same method was used in obtaining the turnover for the following year and in all the other counties included in this investigation.

Turnover in Small Schools Is Great

The essential data concerning the relationship of turnover of high school teachers to the size of the school in the five counties are presented in Table II.

In Table II, which contains the combined data for the five counties, a marked relationship may be noted between the extent of turnover of high school teachers and the size of the school. The bottom row of figures indicates that at the close of the school year 1927-28, 36 per cent of all the teachers in the five counties teaching in schools employing four or less teachers changed positions, while in the schools employing from five to nine teachers, 32.9 per cent changed schools. In considering the schools employing from ten to nineteen teachers, we find a turnover of 26.6 per cent, while the schools with twenty or more teachers have a turnover in their teaching staff of 11.4 per cent. Thus the smaller schools have three times as great a turnover as the larger schools.

Hollis P. Allen,[1] in his study of high school turnover in California for 1921-22, reports a turnover of 24.9 per cent of all high school teachers, while Wendell White, in an investigation of Iowa teachers,[2] finds a turnover ranging from 50 per cent for the smaller high schools to 11 per cent for the larger high schools, with an average of 37 per cent for all high school teachers. R. I. Seeder[3] reports a turnover of 31 per cent for all Minnesota teachers in secondary schools in 1924-25. These comparative data are shown in Table III.

This study shows, then, that the percentage of teachers in secondary schools leaving the profession at the close of each school year in California increased from 15.3 per cent in 1913-14

[1] State Education Department of New York, Teacher Demand in New York State, State Education Department, Educational Measurements Bureau, Albany, New York, 1928, p. 4.

[2] Teacher Supply and Demand, in State School Facts, State Department of Public Instruction, April 1, 1927, vol. 3, No. 14, Raleigh, N. C.

[3] Steele, Robert McCurdy, A Study of Teacher Training in Vermont, Contributions to Education, No. 243, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1926, p. 34.

[1] Allen, Hollis P., op. cit., p. 45.

[2] White, Wendell, Rate and Causes of Turnover of Iowa Teachers, American School Board Journal, vol. 71, No. 6, December, 1925, p. 53.

[3] Seeder, R. I., Aspects of Tenure and Turnover Among Minnesota Teachers, American School Board Journal, vol. 77, No. 4, October, 1928, p. 114.

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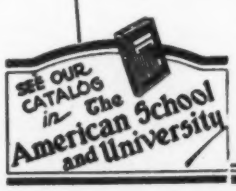
HICKSVILLE HIGH SCHOOL — *Hicksville, L. I.*
WOODFIELD SCHOOL — *Lakeview, L. I.*
GRADE SCHOOL — *Manhasset, L. I.*
SPRING SCHOOL — *Southampton, L. I.*
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL — *Massapequa, L. I.*
GRADE SCHOOL — *Island Park, L. I.*



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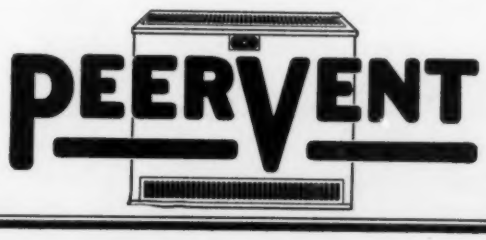


to 17.5 per cent in 1919-20, while in 1927-28 we find a decrease to 12.4 per cent. The extent of teacher drop-out in the various classes of secondary schools in 1927-28 ranges from 10 per cent for the junior college to 13 per cent for the senior high school. The relative number of secondary teachers leaving the profession in California is probably less than the relative number withdrawing from teaching in North Carolina and in Vermont.

For the five rural and semirural counties included in this study, the extent of the shifting of teachers in 1927-28 ranges from 11.4 per cent for the schools of twenty or more teachers, to 36 per cent for the schools of four or less teachers, while the average turnover of all high school teachers in the five counties is 17.1 per cent. While the turnover of teachers in California seems to be less than it is in Iowa and Minnesota, yet in our smaller high schools it is sufficiently large to create a serious problem. As long as 36 per cent of the teachers change positions each year, a considerable portion of the money of the teacher and taxpayer will be wasted, and the student will be deprived of the influence of teachers who are acquainted with the needs of the school and of the community. This deplorable situation will probably continue until these smaller schools are united under larger units of control.

Writing Loses Its Prestige Among the Three R's

Emphasis upon penmanship in the public schools of the nation has steadily declined during the past sixty years until now only 5.3 per cent of the time allotted to all subjects studied per week is given over to this instruction, information at the Office of Education discloses.

In 1866 a total of 671 minutes per week was set aside for instruction in penmanship, while in 1926 figures from fifteen states show 465 minutes allotted to it, or 5 per cent of the instruction time, while 444 cities of the country as a whole allotted 484 minutes per week to it, or 5.3 per cent of instruction time.

The introduction of the typewriter and the expansion of the curriculum to meet the increasing demands of a changing civilization, it was explained, account for the diminution of the emphasis upon penmanship or "writing" as it was termed fifty years ago when classified among the "three R's."

Investigations conducted and presented to the convention of the National Association of Penmanship Teachers and Supervisors in 1929 showed the handwriting ability resulting from instruction in the first six years of school attendance is not sufficient for the preparation of all pupils for entrance into business.

Handwriting, one study revealed, is still necessary for the business worker since practically 50 per cent of the work in the average business house is done by hand. This was the conclusion from a survey made of handwriting in large business firms of Philadelphia.

Although less time is being allotted to handwriting in the public schools per week, papers read before the association of penmanship teachers and supervisors called attention to the need of handwriting in business. What business men want, it was pointed out, are legibility, accuracy, speed and neatness.

English and Its Future as an International Language

"With the increasing importance of business in the modern world, with more travel and intercommunication, the tendency is more and more to substitute English for the native tongue in every non-English speaking country, and eventually to relegate other languages to the place which foreign tongues now occupy in the United States and Canada," Theodore Christianson, governor of Minnesota, writes in the *United States Daily*.

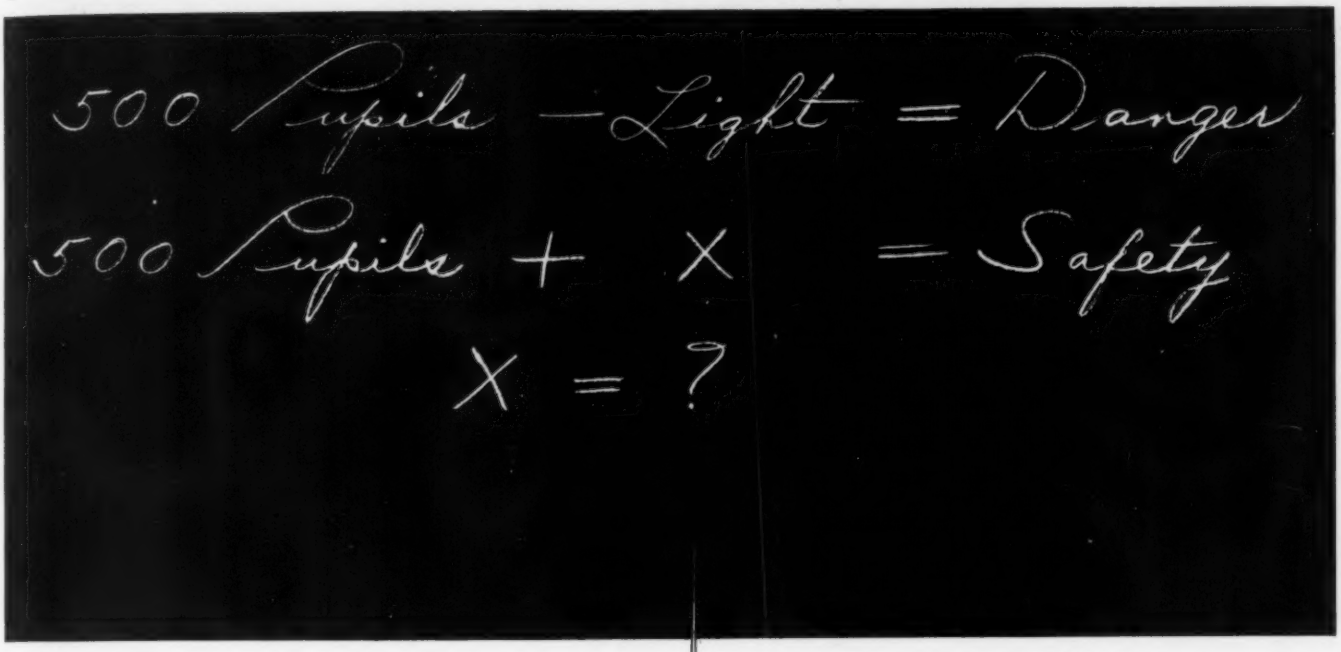
In the Scandinavian countries to-day, practically every high school boy and girl learns English. In German, French and Italian schools, English is the preferred foreign language, he points out. In Spanish America English is the "second" language.

He continues: "The significant thing is that the language of England, Scotland, Ireland and Wales, of the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa, is becoming the second language of almost every civilized country of the world.

"Being the language known to all, this second language is due to become, more and more, the language of commerce, industry and finance; the language of travel and international correspondence; the language of commercial travelers and exchange professors; even, eventually, the language of diplomacy.

"It is interesting to recall that in the recent London conference, French was not used as exclusively as it once was in negotiations between nations."

Can you work out this problem?



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Your Everyday Problems:

Modernizing Programs of School Taxation

By JOHN GUY FOWLKES, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin

IN THE December number of The NATION'S SCHOOLS, a digest of a model tax plan which was formulated by the National Association of Public Tax Officials was presented. The suggestion was also made that professional educators would do well to familiarize themselves with the material and that plans for financing the ever expanding programs of public education should be formulated in harmony with the general state program of taxation. This discussion is a follow-up of the material that appeared in the December issue.

From Adam Smith to Seligman, it has been generally conceded that any scheme of taxation should be founded on one or all of the following bases: need, ability to pay and benefits derived. Since such is the case, it seems clear that taxation for the support of schools should conform to these criteria. Despite the general approval of these principles of taxation, the correct methods of determining need, ability to pay and benefits derived have neither been definitely established nor universally accepted. The following discussion will attempt to consider these canons of taxation as they affect public education.

Need of money for both individuals and large social groups depends to a high degree on the tastes, appetites, desires and attitudes of a people. What these tastes, appetites, attitudes and desires will be no one can accurately say. This is peculiarly true of schools since current practice rather than an ideal condition is used rather generally as the basis of determining school budgets. However, it may be well in passing to remark that in determining the financial need of schools the value received per dollar spent must be given much more attention in light of the increasingly larger sums demanded for public education.

More Exacting Attitude Is Necessary

It is generally admitted that the ultimate value of schools can be measured best by the attitudes, tastes and ambitions a people reflect. Since such is the case, it appears essential for professional educators to take great care, first, to know what tastes, appetites and ambitions are being created by the schools, and second, to know the results of such tastes, appetites and ambitions. In other words, it is essential that a more exacting attitude toward the curricula of schools be taken by professional educators. This is closely connected with the impartial evaluation of the school curricula which will be treated under another heading.

Determining the Community's Ability to Pay

Studies by Swift, Cubberley, Updegraff, Mort, Singleton, Simpson, Anderson, Adams, Jones and many others, along with the statistics that are compiled each year in most states, show clearly that the major portion of school support comes from the general property tax levied on assessed valuations of properties in local school districts. Many years ago, before the development of the countless labor saving machines and the large number of highly specialized professional workers, property may have been a sound basis for measuring economic competence. Such is no longer the case.

The assumption that assessed valuation within a school district reveals the financial ability of that community is highly fallacious. Because of this fallacy, the general property tax has imposed a burden upon individuals and corporations alike, which in many cases has reached a breaking point. Recent studies by Groves and Fowlkes show that in both rural and urban areas in certain parts of Wisconsin the general property tax absorbs from 20 to 70 per cent of the annual rent or income received from lands on the one hand, and residences, apartment buildings or store buildings on the other. Stories of men borrowing money to pay property taxes because their total current incomes were not large enough to provide a living and pay taxes, too, are common throughout the country. Such a condition will ultimately bring chaos of far-reaching consequences and cannot persist.

Present ability to pay for individuals and corporations alike is best measured by income. Income is derived from three sources: personal service, from the income of permanent property that is being administered wisely and from the transfer of either permanent or temporary property so that

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profits result. Since such is the case, it seems desirable that annual income, rather than intangible valuations be used as the fundamental basis for determining the ability of a community to finance a modern program of public education and at the same time to budget its finances in the best way.

neither does nor can exist in any other situation. School curricula are too often determined by the prejudiced judgment of a few persons, rather than by the service such curricula render. Also, merely changing the name or mechanics of school work does not necessarily alter the nature of the environ-

A DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL RECEIPTS IN WISCONSIN BY SOURCES*
(Exclusive of Capital Outlay and Debt Service)
(1928-1929)

Source		*Amount*	*Per Cent of Total*
Local Districts (General Property Tax)		$30,945,800	69.49
Towns—Tuition (General Property Tax)		1,854,302	4.16
County—Elementary Aid (General Property Tax)		3,914,750	8.79
County—Superintendent (General Property Tax)		272,155	.61
State (County Supervising Teachers)		238,000	.53
State (Elementary-Flat Rate)		3,914,750	8.79
State (Equalization)		1,786,838	4.01
State (H. S. Vocational Training)		100,000	.22
State (District Free H. S.)	60% General Property Tax 40% Income Tax	100,000	.22
State (Union and Consolidated H. S.)		75,000	.17
State (Teacher Training H. S.)		25,000	.06
State (State Graded and Junior J. S.)		200,000	.44
State (Special Education—Deaf, Blind, Disabled, Exceptional Children)		189,961	.43
State (Transportation)		220,310	.49
State (Vocational Schools)		255,000	.57
State (Income Permanent Fund)		288,466	.65
Federal (Vocational Aid)		150,287	.34
Totals		44,530,619	100.00
Total Local District Receipts (General Property Tax)		30,945,800	69.49
Total Town Receipts (General Property Tax)		1,854,302	4.16
Total County Receipts (General Property Tax)		4,186,905	9.40
Total State Receipts (General Property Tax)		4,262,915	9.6
Total State Receipts (Income Tax)		2,841,943	6.4
Total State Receipts (Permanent School Fund)		288,466	.6
Total Federal Receipts		150,287	.34

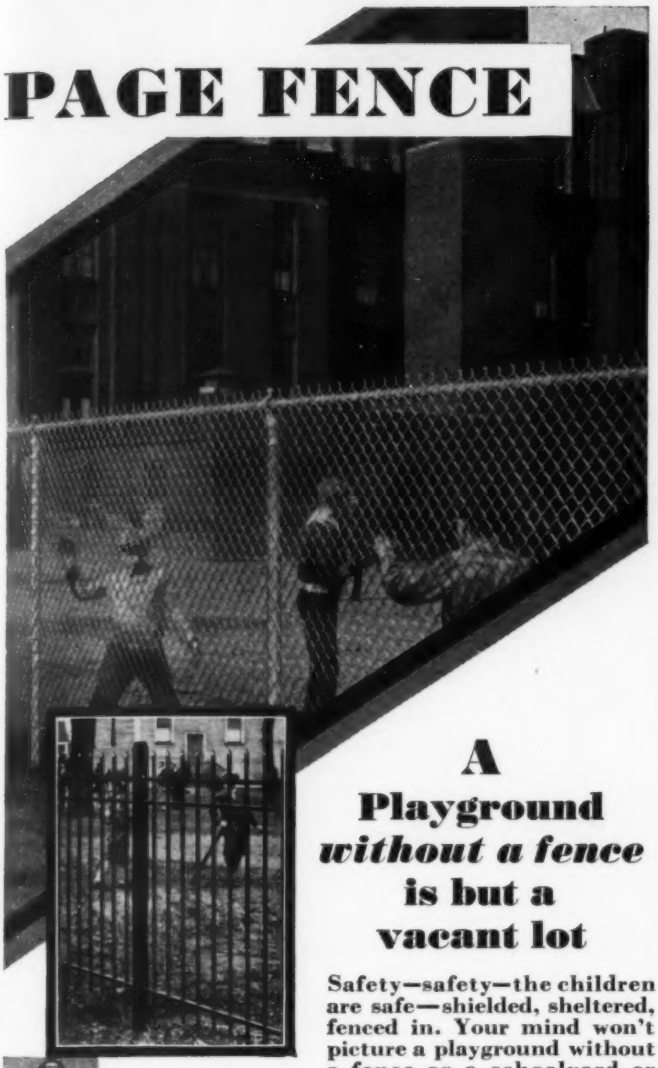
*Data from reports on file in the state department of public instruction and the state board for vocational education.

Little has been done in measuring accurately the benefits derived from educational institutions. As professional educators, we hope that at least no harm and perhaps some good is done those who are registered in our elementary, secondary and higher educational institutions. But prayer and faith must join hands with fact, and if we are honest in our declarations concerning the rendition of professional service the next decade must see much more attention directed toward the measurement of educational results in terms of contemporary adult life rather than school objectives. There is a real danger in the inherent organization of schools that an atmosphere will be created that

ment or the effects of being exposed to such environment. Just as much formalism may exist under the names of "socialized recitation" and "the project method" as under an old-time drill lesson. Obviously, the financial need of public schools, and the results of such schools are mutual determiners of each other. Creators of school curricula must recognize this and provide a technique that will determine the social desirability of school objectives as well as whether they are being realized at present.

Despite the creation of many terms that frequently are confusing, in the last analysis there are at present three principal bases (commonly re-

PAGE FENCE



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ferred to as sources) of taxation for schools: personal service, the possession of property (capital) and the transfer or exchange or sale of property at a profit. Taxes on personal service have been kept clearly identified as taxes on "money coming in." But taxes on property that is *held*—real and personal taxes and taxes on the result of exchange of property at a profit—are illustrated by the so-called sales taxes, such as the gasoline tax.

Eliminating the Terms "Earned and Unearned"

It may be correctly stated that property is of contemporary value only if it produces income. Consequently it seems equitable to translate property values into contemporary income values. In short, it seems that the time is ripe for state taxation to be based nearly, if not exclusively on income of three basic kinds: (1) income from personal service; (2) income derived from the transfer, exchange or sale of property, or the personal use of property or capital; (3) income derived from capital holdings.

Attention is called to the fact that the proposed program recognizes the different ways in which income is derived. Seligman and others some years ago presented this principle, but the terms earned income and unearned income have been commonly used. The terms earned and unearned carry certain unfortunate political-economic implications that are disagreeable to the traditions predominant in this country. As Lutz in a recent volume entitled "Public Finance" says: "The use of the terms earned income and unearned income is neither fair nor accurate. In light of these facts, it seems apparent that these terms should be abandoned in our thinking, speaking and writing."

Studies of Communities Are Needed

It seems evident from the preceding discussion that a thorough revision of the existing techniques for measuring the educational needs of communities as well as the results of the offerings of local schools is essential. It likewise seems clear that taxes levied for the support of public education should be revised so that the ability of local communities to pay for public education may be recognized in a clear and definite fashion. The revision of existing tax policies with respect to schools to be effective must of course be achieved through the state. At the same time such revision can be effected by the state only if those particularly concerned with public education are familiar with conditions as they exist in local communities and know how any new program of taxation for schools would affect the local districts. This demands a series of comprehensive studies of the local school districts that exist within a state.

The major studies that are needed in gaining a sound perspective of the tax situation with respect to schools are the following: (1) kind and relative importance of various taxes now used in the support of public education within a state; (2) distribution of present taxation concerning individuals; (3) distribution of present taxation concerning corporations. As indicated, the first step necessary in revising the present system of public school support is that of determining how public school monies are now obtained and also what means are utilized for financing all commonwealth and municipal institutions.

Practically all public enterprises exclusive of programs of capital outlay come from the following sources: the property tax, personal and real; the income tax; the severance tax; interest from permanent funds; the inheritance tax; the sales tax; customs and duties; fines, escheats and forfeitures; licenses, and from miscellaneous fees that have been collected.

School Taxation in Wisconsin

For those interested in ascertaining how public schools are financed within a given state, it would be desirable to see which of these sources are employed and the effect of the present practice. The accompanying table shows the sources of school receipts in Wisconsin for the year 1928-29. It is adapted from Table II of a study entitled "An Equalization Plan for the High Schools of Wisconsin" by John Guy Fowlkes and Lee Francis Jones.

Attention is called to the fact that practically 70 per cent of the total school receipts in Wisconsin for the year 1928-29, exclusive of capital outlay, was raised by the local district and that approximately 94 per cent of such receipts was raised by the general property tax. An analysis similar to this one offers the basis for beginning a revision of the plan of school support. It is clear from this table that the burden of school support in Wisconsin is borne by local districts by means of the general property tax. Such a condition is in direct contradiction to what is universally accepted as the best theory of school finance and presents an irrefutable argument for the early revision of the present plan of school support in Wisconsin.

Lack of space will not permit the inclusion of an illustration of the second type of study suggested, namely, the distribution of the burden of individual taxation. In the February number of The NATION'S SCHOOLS, however, this material with an accompanying discussion will be presented.

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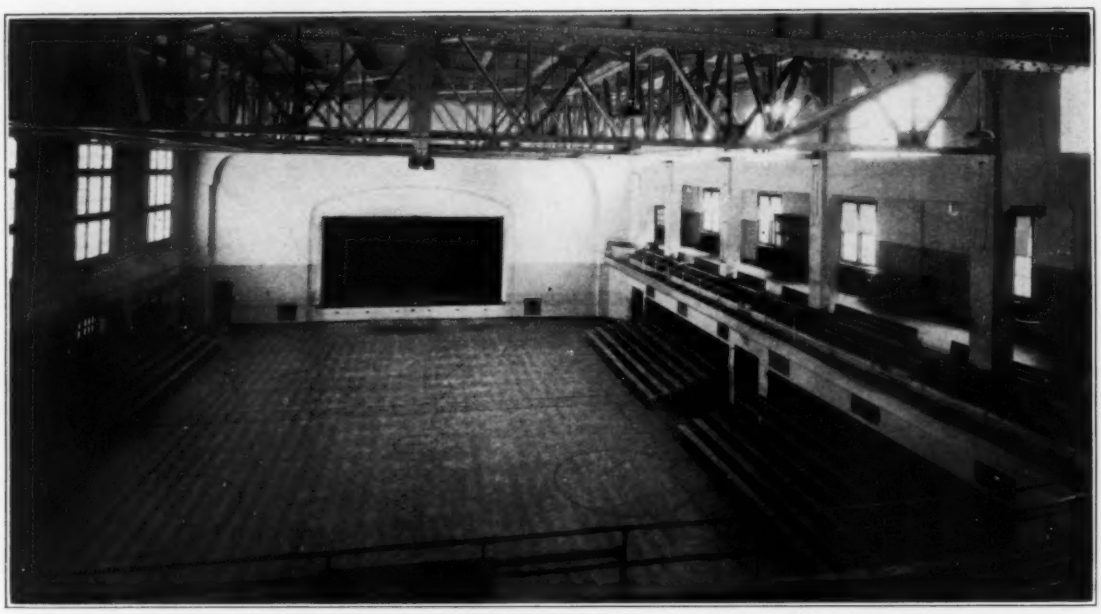

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Schoolhouse Planning:

Translating Instructional Needs Into Physical Facilities

By ARTHUR B. MOEHLMAN, Professor of School Administration and Supervision, School of Education, University of Michigan

WHEN an attempt is made to satisfy educational needs for school buildings, four closely related phases must be considered. These include educational designing, architectural and engineering service, construction service and the actual operation of the completed plant. While none of these four phases begins to operate until the appraisal of the existing plant and the determination of the ultimate plant have been made, the first two will be discussed at this point of sequence because both activities, before they can operate, must be preceded by policy choice upon the part of the board of education. The first three phases are closely related although they represent wide and diverse activities. Each must be considered separately and in coordination. None may be neglected.

Educational designing is the translation of instructional needs into physical facilities. It is the activity through which the number, curricular and social needs of both child and community are translated into numbers, sizes, types and locations of rooms and are developed as a complete building sketch plan. The educational design should lend itself to efficient administration, efficient and economical instruction, expansibility, flexibility and good architectural treatment.[1]

Flexible Plan Should Be Adopted

The executive must consider a series of related factors in developing the educational design of a projected school plant. He must first determine the actual need for building units. This is the direct translation of number and curricular needs into physical units. These required units must be so organized that they will be logically related to each other, will satisfy the building orientation need and will ensure ease in administration. The educational plan must be developed so that these desires and required results may be attained for the least expenditure of money in relation to a determined standard of physical adequacy.

Expansibility and flexibility must be considered of paramount importance. The educational plan must be developed so that the result will lend itself to good architectural treatment. In the satisfaction of the first two factors, the educational executive alone is concerned, for he is the one who has control over the technique of understanding and translating the instructional needs. Other factors should be developed in close cooperation with the architect. The best results are secured through the combined efforts of the two specialists. It is therefore important that architectural service be considered early in the development of the school plant program.

Points to Be Weighed

There are five current practices in the educational designing of school buildings. These are: complete neglect of the activity; planning by the architect; use of an instructional specialist in the employ of the architect; planning by an instructional specialist or consultant unattached either to the school system or to the architect, and designing by the specialized executive organization of the school system. The last method is peculiarly adapted to a large city system with constant building programs.

In the development of the school plant it is necessary to consider not only the classroom and special building needs but also the auxiliary factors of playground and landscaping. The scope of educational designing may therefore be considered to include three planning aspects: the actual building, the playground and the beautification of the entire unit, or landscaping.

The major factors with respect to the building itself have been mentioned in previous articles. The relation of the other two factors to educational designing are not always understood or given proper emphasis. The playground may be

[1]For specific application of the principles discussed here, the reader is referred to the following articles published in The NATION'S SCHOOLS: A Concrete Problem in Educational Designing, May, 1928, When Remodeling Is Profitable, November, 1929, A Parish School That Is Designed for Educational Needs, January, 1930.

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considered as the open air gymnasium. It is directly related to the health activity in the formal curricular organization and should be considered, studied and developed in terms of these needs. This means that provision must be made for the varied types of physical activity that the program requires and for the differentiated activity of the different age periods. After school hours the school playground should be the recreation center of the neighborhood, not only for all the children but for adults as well. These requirements indicate a problem in correlation and in the economical planning of essential activities. From this aspect the development of the playground is essentially an educational activity, closely correlated with the more formal building program, and it falls naturally within the scope of educational designing.

The beautification of the school plant, both within and without the building, is also closely related to the instructional program. Since one of the functions of the school plant is to exemplify the ideals of public education and to furnish inspiration, this problem must also be approached from the educational standpoint, so that the entire plant may be developed as a well integrated unit.

All three phases, building, playground and landscaping, are so closely related to the entire function of the school plant that it is obvious that the successful solution of the problem depends upon the skill with which the educational policies are worked out in relation to all of these factors.

The educational factors basic to educational designing include: the number of children to be served or the immediate and ultimate size of the plant; the size of the class unit; the grade distribution; the extent of the organization; the curriculum; the expression of the curricular objectives in terms of activities; the time allotment of subjects or activities; the method of teaching; the type of equipment to be used; the method of school administration, and the requirements for adult education.

Planning for Social Events

After satisfying the educational factors it is necessary to consider the social factors. The extent to which the social factors modify educational designing will be determined by the policy of the board of education. In this field each district must develop its own plan of procedure. The social factors include activities that are concerned with the extended use of the plant as a center of community life. They include generally: the program of adult physical and recreational activity in the gymnasium and on the playground; community lectures, concerts and other programs closely related to auditorium activity; informal educational programs, through reading, which are centered around the library; small group social activity; community festivals, banquets and suppers, which are concerned with the lunch room facilities, and activities centered around the parent-teacher program.

It may now be assumed that the educational and social factors have been adequately satisfied by educational planning and that the building developed for these needs represents an ideal. The next series of conditioning factors are those of a physical nature. Whatever educational plan is developed it must conform to the climate, to the qualifications and limitations of type of site and to the general character of the terrain.

Climate Must Be Considered

Ideally, the most perfect type of building, from the standpoint of instruction and safety, would be a one-story structure. In the South and the Southwest such an ideal may be economically realized. In metropolitan areas, however, the cost of land is a determining factor that might prevent the realization of the ideal. The vital factor, however, in determining the height of the building will probably be the climate. The cost of building a two-story building in the more severe climates will be slightly higher per unit of construction than the one-story type in the warm climate. This is due to the heavier construction and the special heating requirements. The cost of operation of a one-story building is higher in a severe climate, and the cost of maintenance, because of the large exterior surfaces, also tends to be higher.

The ideal educational plan may call for a T shaped or L shaped building, which means an extended plant. In many situations, particularly metropolitan areas, the type of site is determined by the practice of subdividing. This is particularly true where it is necessary to secure sites in areas already built up. Under these conditions the shape of the site will vary greatly and the form of the building must be modified to meet the practical conditions of the site. It may therefore be necessary to consider more than one educational plan as the working ideal.

The character of the site, or the general terrain, may modify the type of building to some extent. On level ground it is desirable and possible to erect a one or two-story building. Different levels on a site may demand variations from a plan that is perfectly feasible on flat terrain. Serious differences in building conditions arise because of the type of soil. Large quicksand pockets or the presence of water might make it desirable to modify the form of building somewhat in order to

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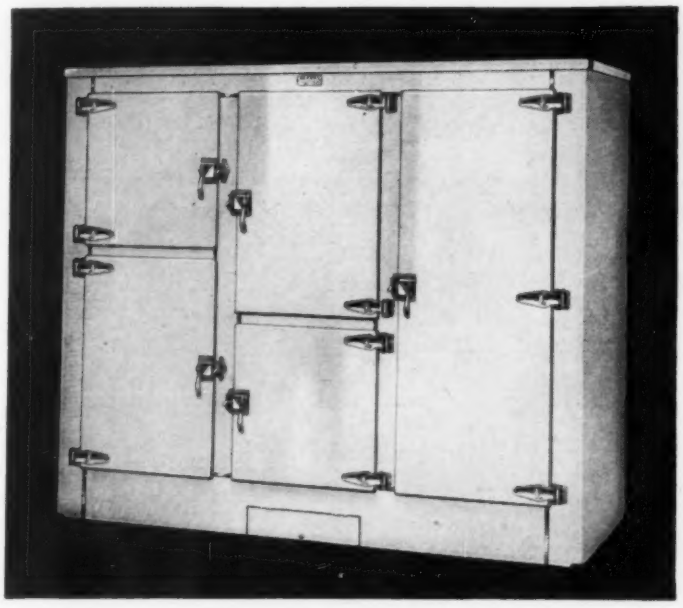

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avoid expense. The cost of drilling or blasting through rock might also have a determining influence upon the height of the building.

In general the ideal educational plan may require modification in terms of climate, type of site and the character of the terrain. These modifications represent adjustments to practical conditions that must be met and solved in order that the plant may be developed with regard for economy in construction.

In all educational designing the greatest care must be observed to include in each plan the maximum of flexibility and expansibility. The reason for this caution is obvious. Public education is dynamic in character and is constantly changing to meet the social demands of the age. The school plant is a crystallized expression of curricular objectives and activities at the time of construction. Its physical characteristics make it relatively permanent. The expectancy of the physical life of a school of fireproof construction erected to-day should be at least fifty years. Many changes will probably take place in education during this period. The actual form that these changes will take is only dimly seen now.

The past generation considered the educational program as static rather than as dynamic, and the demand for facilities as permanent. As a result the older buildings lack flexibility to a startling degree. Many structures in otherwise fairly good condition are being scrapped to-day because inflexibility in basic design renders them obsolescent. To avoid this error in the future means that present day educational designing must, above all things, be flexible.

Forecasting Future Demands

It is now impossible to predict with absolute accuracy what the future number of demands upon any plant may be. All survey data in terms of possible ultimate demand must be based upon a continuation of existing conditions, modified as far as possible by readily ascertainable changes. Social and religious shifts in population, change in the desirability of locations, the development of industry and change in economic status are variables that cannot be controlled in forecasting population for a specific district. The present conceivable ultimate plant demand may be for 1,200 children. A few years of radical change, such as has taken place in all of our large industrial centers, may result in a population shift that will cause the demand for school facilities in the district to double. Changes in compulsory education laws or in method may increase the holding power considerably. On account of this uncertainty every school plant designed now or in the future should be planned, even in very small communities, with a maximum of flexibility.

As a rule, the closed court building has the least expansibility. This is the major fault of most of our older school plants. It is probably true that even these plants might be expanded, but only at a maximum of expense. In most cases, this cost of change is so great that a district will more often abandon the structure and develop an entirely new plant than pay the price of changing the old one.

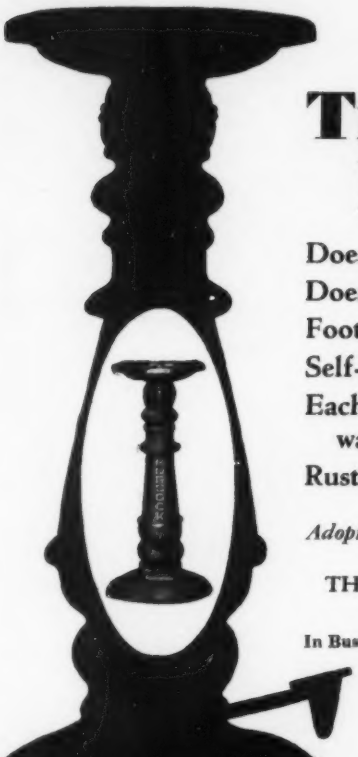
The most easily expansible plant in terms of ease and economy is the open type plan. Provided that the site is large enough and that the building has been properly placed, future needs can be met by the continuation of the main axis or by wings.

Simplicity Is Most to Be Desired

It is the responsibility of the executive in designing the school plant to satisfy adequately the educational needs of the community. It is then his duty to translate these needs into an educational plan that will make it possible to secure the required facilities in the most economical manner consistent with good architectural, engineering and construction practice. Educational designing, intelligently conceived and adequately executed, should meet the educational requirements and eliminate all possible waste space, both in corridor, classroom and other facilities. Through his technical knowledge and experience, the architect is expected to produce in construction the most economical use of materials and methods. The best school design is that which is extremely simple in character, gaining its effects through a minimum of applied ornament and a maximum of proportion and balance. Considered in these terms, good design is not expensive.

After the executive and the architect have met their problems in terms of board of education policy, the educational plan, the architectural development, and tentative specifications and estimated cost, should be submitted to the board of education for approval. If the outlay is too much for the resources of the district, it is the responsibility of the board of education to determine the actual amount to be spent. This is finance policy and is not an executive activity. If the board of education modifies or rejects the plan upon the basis of finance, such action represents a change in policy and the remaking of the plan again devolves upon the executive.

Finally, the function of the executive is to perform the duties incidental to educational designing in as efficient and satisfactory a manner as possible, in accordance with the existing policies of the board of education. The question of ways and means is one that rests with the legislative body.



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Practical School Administration:

Observing Father and Son Weeks in the Schools

By PHILIP C. LOVEJOY, Assistant Secretary, Rotary International, Formerly Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Hamtramck, Mich.

MANY communities in the United States set aside two or three weeks in February to be known as Father and Son Weeks. In 1931 these will be February 5 to 21. At this time especially fathers are urged to pay more attention to the activities of their boys.

All the organizations of the community cooperate. Churches arrange for special meetings of fathers and sons. Banquets are served. Get togethers are frequent. The municipal government plans various activities. Some boy becomes mayor of the city for a day. Other boys assume governmental posts. Many of the noonday luncheon clubs have special programs to which the boys are invited. It is hoped that they may learn something of the club objectives as related to community progress. The entire period is one that is conducive to understanding.

Practical, Workable Plans

In 1930 I was a member of the central Father and Son Weeks committee of Detroit. Our task was to plan for the local observance of these weeks. My special function was to assist in making suggestions applicable to the public schools. Asst. Supt. Ed Miller was chairman of the committee. After several weeks of research three specific plans were prepared. These were presented to the school men of the city. Everything in these plans was carefully studied to make certain it would enhance the program of public school relations as well as the aims of Father and Son Weeks. Many of these ideas were tried for the first time last year, and proved successful.

The basic parts of these three plans are presented here as definite practical suggestions for school executives concerning some of the best uses of these weeks.

The first plan may be outlined as follows:

1. Arrange for the fathers to visit the school while it is in session during the day. This plan is available only in areas where fathers can get away from their work during the daytime.
2. Have a session of the school for a limited period at night if the area is one where the fathers cannot leave their work in the daytime.
3. The program may consist of a series of Father and Son games on various levels of achievement.
4. There may be a brief auditorium period in which both fathers and sons take part.
5. A simple luncheon may be served in the cafeteria after this program.
6. The Hi-Y Club or some other club may have an open installation of officers if their plans permit of such an arrangement.
7. Some club may have an open meeting with the fathers taking some part in the program.
8. Fathers representing various vocations may give the older boys vocational talks based on personal experience.
9. There may be a hobby meeting of the boys and the fathers. Each can demonstrate his hobby or use the school shop to make some special object.
10. The Father and Son Weeks may be used as the basis for the formation of a fathers' forum, which may have meetings with the boys once a month during the regular school auditorium period.
11. The boys may bring their fathers to one of the basket ball games. After this there may be a match between the boys and the fathers.

One school has always had its Father and Son observance the first thing in the morning. While the following plan was used in these morning meetings, it is equally suitable for an evening meeting:

1. The fathers all receive personal written invitations from their sons.
2. They come to school early in the morning with their boys.
3. They go with them while they hang up their wraps and accompany them to the auditorium, where a brief program is presented.

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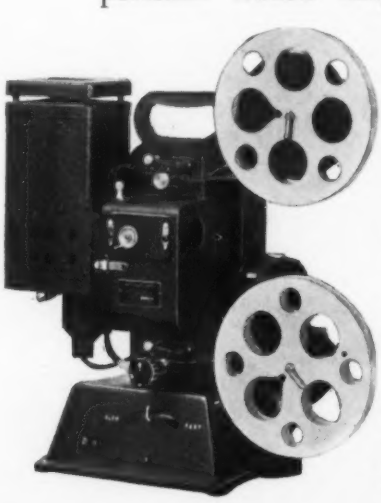

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4. A boy cannot get into the auditorium unless he brings as a ticket his father or some male adult taking the place of his father.

5. A program is given as follows: community singing, the boys and fathers singing to each other and with each other; a line-up on the stage of the patrol boys, each of whom tells of his particular duty and how he strives to serve the community; a demonstration by the boys of the work done in their aircraft class. They show their fathers the planes they have made and then fly them in the auditorium; a short play in which all the characters are boys; yells for the fathers by the sons and by the fathers for the sons; no speeches.

6. At the close of the program the fathers go to the gymnasium and join their boys in games and races.

7. After this the boys conduct their fathers wherever they want to go about the school. Some fathers who plan just to drop in have such a good time that they stay the whole morning, seeing the library, going into the science room, listening to the orchestra practice and visiting the regular classrooms.

In the third plan two schools might combine, the program to consist (1) of a debate in which each team should have both fathers and sons and (2) of games in which both fathers and sons participate.

The main objects of all of these suggestions are to get away from speeches and to show the fathers the privileges enjoyed by their sons in school.

Attacking the Chief Problem of Higher Education

The University of Wisconsin has adopted a plan which gives promise of conserving the resources of the university, in the higher years at any rate, for students who are eager to take advantage of them, at the same time permitting all properly prepared applicants to make a try at an intellectual career.

In addition to the use of intelligence tests for all high school seniors who apply for admission to the university to guide those who are apparently not intended by nature for advanced intellectual work into vocations in which they will be likely to succeed, there will be a separation of the promising and unpromising students at the close of the second year. During the freshman and sophomore years, careful study will be made of the interests, the special abilities and the achievement of all students. At the end of the sophomore year, the students who have shown that they can profit from two more years of university study will be permitted and encouraged to continue their intellectual work.

The lower one-fifth, or thereabouts, of the students who have shown that they do not possess the particular qualities necessary for success in intellectual work will be given certificates stating that they have completed two years of general or cultural training. They will then leave the campus and endeavor to find a vocation in which their special talents may enable them to succeed. It is expected that approximately one-fifth of the students who have completed two years of university work will be on the border line. A committee of the faculty will make a careful study of all such cases and will determine on the basis of their high school record, their intelligence and vocational tests and their experiences during their freshman and sophomore years whether or not they will be permitted to continue into the junior year.

Providing for Capable Students

In addition to this new plan of selecting students who are equipped to follow an intellectual career, the University of Wisconsin is adopting another innovation which will, to some extent, break up the rigidity of the traditional university program. It is recognized that some students possess the capacity to complete a university course satisfactorily in a shorter period of time than other capable students can complete it. That is to say, from 3 per cent to 5 per cent of a freshman class entering the university can master all the work of a four-year course in three years, and some of them can complete the course in even less time. The University of Wisconsin will permit these specially endowed individuals to complete the regular course as rapidly as their ability will enable them to do.

Following these plans, students who remain in the university for the first two years only will have received all the general training that can be of service to them. They will have participated in college life and will have gained therefrom whatever cultural values it can bestow upon them. They will have demonstrated, alike to their own satisfaction and to that of the university authorities and of their parents, that they are not best adapted for an intellectual career.

This arrangement will meet the demands of those who feel that it will be of benefit to every boy and girl who completes a high school course to spend some time in a higher institution. It will be possible also for university faculties to devote their energies more fully than they are now able to do to the students who are adapted for an intellectual career.

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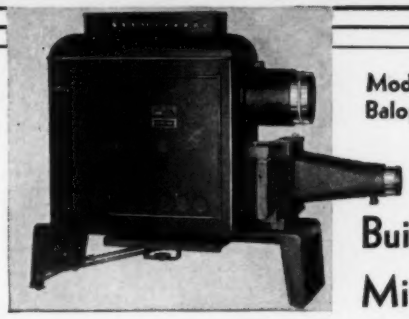

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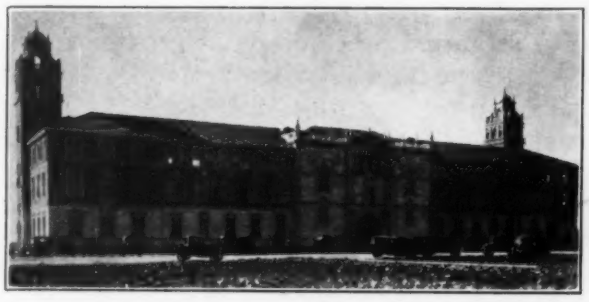

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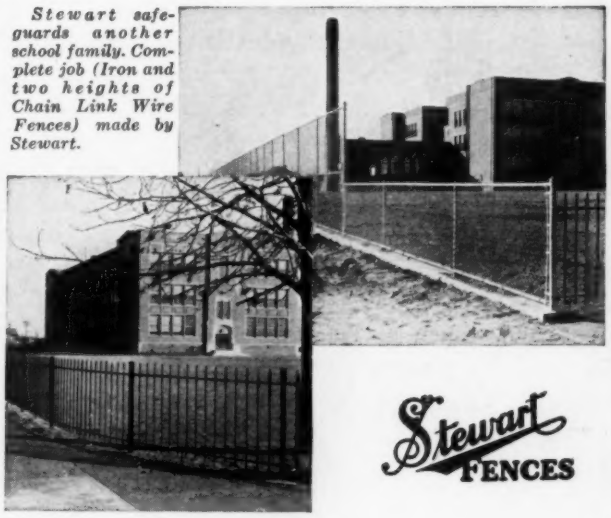

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News of the Month

North Central Association to Meet, March 17-21

The thirty-sixth annual meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools will be held at the Hotel Stevens, Chicago, March 17 to 21. The states included in the association are Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, South Dakota, West Virginia, Wisconsin and Wyoming.

The program will include addresses by President H. W. Chase of the University of Illinois, President G. W. Frasier of the Colorado State Teachers College and President R. M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago. The association will receive reports concerning the national survey of teacher training, the national survey of secondary education and the work of the national advisory committee on education.

Numerous committee reports will be presented at the meeting. These reports will relate to standards for high schools, standards for colleges, athletic policies, entrance requirements, the scope of units in certain secondary school subjects and other matters of professional interest.

Officers of the association for 1930-31 are: president, Merle Prunty, superintendent of schools, Tulsa, Okla.; first vice-president, C. R. Maxwell, dean, college of education, University of Wyoming, Laramie; second vice-president, G. W. Willett, principal, Lyons Township High School, La Grange, Ill.; secretary, J. B. Edmonson, dean, school of education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor; treasurer, E. H. K. McComb, principal, Manual Training High School, Indianapolis.

Mississippi Sponsors Campaign to Eliminate Fire Hazards

A cooperative plan to eliminate fire hazards in school buildings of Mississippi has just been announced by the state superintendent of education, W. F. Bond, who said expert assistance has been placed at the service of the state by Lloyd T. Wheeler, manager of the Mississippi State Rating Bureau.

Mr. Wheeler has made available the services of inspectors employed by the rating bureau in various parts of the state to inspect all school plants and to submit recommendations for fire safety.

"This fire prevention campaign with services of expert inspectors will cost the school district nothing and will point out fire hazards which should be eliminated," Mr. Bond stated.

Porto Rico to Receive Aid on Vocational Education

Authorization of an appropriation of $105,000, for the next and succeeding fiscal years, to extend to Porto Rico the Vocational Education Act of 1917, and $15,000 for Porto Rico's annual share hereafter in the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920, proposed in a bill, was ordered favorably reported on by the House Committee on Education.

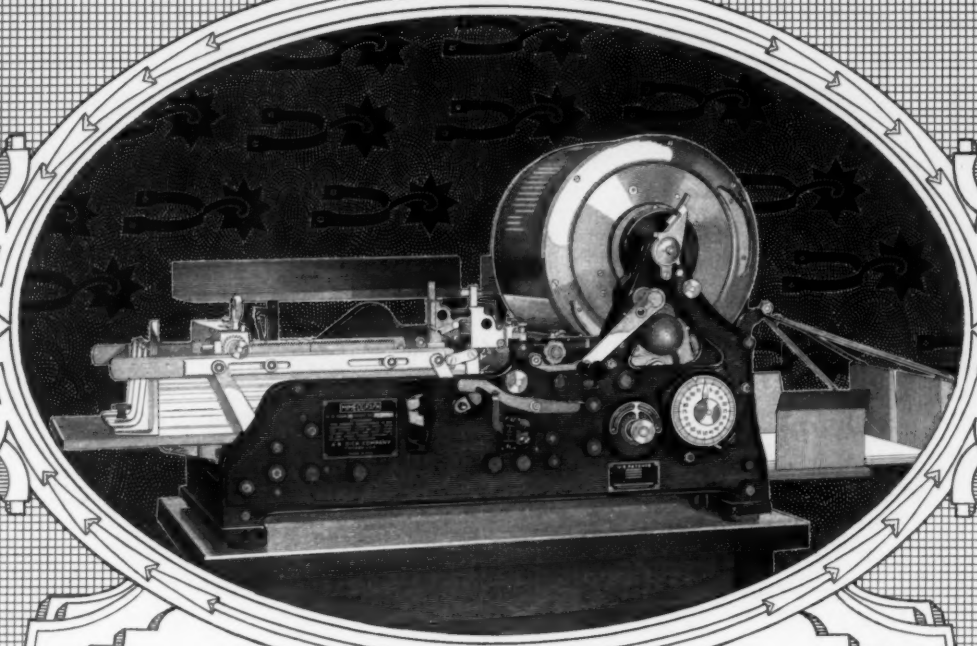
Washington State College Files Test Suit

A test suit has just been filed in the supreme court by the regents of the Washington State College to determine whether funds granted for the endowment of the institution by the Government and certain local institutional funds can be disbursed out of the state treasury without specific bi-annual appropriations by the legislature.

The Federal funds involved include the so-called Morrill Act funds for the further endowment of land grant scientific and agricultural colleges, the Hatch Act funds awarded for experimental station work and the Smith-Lever funds for agriculture extension work.

An alternative writ of mandate has been issued returnable January 16, 1931.

E. W. Anderson, assistant attorney general, recently handed down an opinion holding that legislative appropriations are necessary biennially and in specific amounts to authorize the disbursement of any official funds reaching the state treasury. The state college contends that the funds in question never officially become funds of the state and, even though deposited with the state treasurer, are trust funds belonging to the institution.



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News of the Month

National High School Chorus to Meet February 20-24

That the school boys and girls of the United States have advantages in music superior to those in other countries is the opinion of Dr. Hollis E. Dann, director of musical education, New York University, who will direct the National High School Chorus at the concert in Detroit, February 20 to 24.

More than 400 pupils from 150 high schools will compose the chorus. These pupils are trained by their various instructors and rehearsed for one week as a choral group by Doctor Dann at the scene of the concert.

Doctor Dann estimates that there are 20,000 school bands in this country, 40,000 school orchestras and 100,000 pupils in piano classes.

State Superintendents Hold Annual Meeting in Milwaukee

That the important functions of the Government toward state education are continued research, stimulation and cooperation was the theme of the annual meeting of the National Council of State Superintendents and Commissioners of Education in Milwaukee, December 8 to 11.

Dr. William John Cooper, United States Commissioner of Education, presided. In an address on the relations of the Government to education, Doctor Cooper declared that education is essentially a state function residing within the sovereignty of the states that the Federal office recognizes.

One of the acts of the council was the announcement that it would seek congressional action requiring the Census Bureau to disclose, upon requests by state superintendents of education, the names and addresses of illiterate persons listed in the census reports.

The council also asserted in a resolution that the right of states to own and operate broadcasting stations for educational purposes was threatened by the development of commercial broadcasting. The council said further that it was ready to support any state official who approached Congress, the Federal Radio Commission or any court to protect or secure the right of any individual state to use the radio.

The conference commended the Office of Education for fostering national surveys. A survey on the financing of education to be followed by a survey of special education was recommended as further work to be accomplished by the Office of Education.

The superintendents pledged to support the George Washington Bicentennial Celebration after Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University, depicted the high learning and numerous accomplishments of this country's first president.

Louisville to Open Municipal College for Negroes

The first college for Negroes to be established by a municipality will be opened in Louisville, Ky., about February 1. The college will be under the administration of the board of trustees of the University of Louisville. Its dean and faculty will be members of the Negro race, while the supervision of its finances, administration and student health will rest with the authorities of the university.

The college will provide premedical, normal and regular academic work of a standard which, together with entrance requirements, will meet the regulations of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

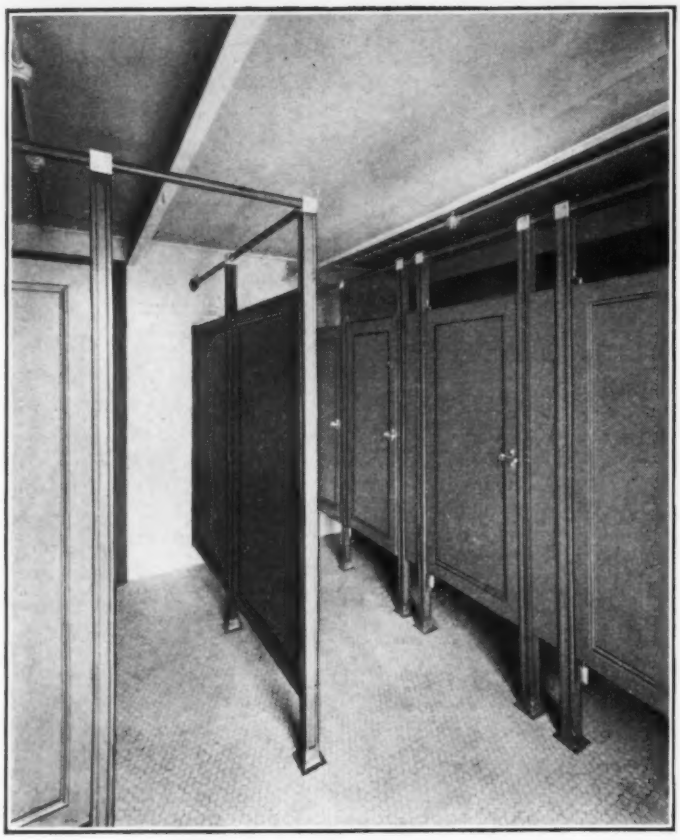
Recent Ruling on the Liability of School Busses

School districts in Michigan that accept fares for the transportation of pupils are liable for injuries caused by the negligent operation of busses, Attorney General Wilber M. Brucker ruled recently in an opinion asked by John E. Feightner, Morley. When no fare is paid, however, the school district is not liable, it was held.

Brazil Seeks Books on Technical Education

The minister of education in Brazil has sent a request to the United States for assistance regarding supplies of books on secondary and advanced technical education, Secretary of State Henry L. Stimson has announced.

FOR SCHOOL TOILETS AND SHOWERS



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News of the Month

Czechoslovakia Plans for Radio Education

The Czechoslovak Ministry of Education has created a radio section which will have charge of the installation of radios in Czechoslovak schools and the broadcasting of school programs, according to advices received from Sam E. Woods, assistant trade commissioner, Prague, Czechoslovakia. Special school programs will be broadcast twice daily, according to preliminary plans.

Radio sets will be installed in 13,000 primary schools at a cost of approximately 60,000,000 crowns, or about $1,800,000. The larger schools will include the cost of installing radio equipment in their current budgets while arrangements will be made for the smaller schools to receive credit and pay for the equipment over a period of several years.

American Vocational Association Meets in Milwaukee

The fifth annual meeting of the American Vocational Association was held in Milwaukee, December 11 to 13. The association is composed of Federal, state, municipal and local educators, administrators, teachers, trainers, superintendents, supervisors and teachers of vocational subjects, as well as representatives of agriculture and industry. More than sixty persons prominent in educational, agricultural and industrial life appeared before this convention.

C. M. Miller, director of vocational education for Kansas, was elected president of the association for the coming year, succeeding Paul W. Chapman, director of vocational education for Georgia.

Recommendations of the National Advisory Committee on Education urging that Federal grants now being made to states for educational purposes be discontinued, were rejected by the association. The committee's recommendation that a Federal grant of $2.50 per child annually be substituted for the present Federal policy of distributing funds to states was also rejected.

Speakers on the programs included James R. Coxen, industrial agent, Federal Board for Vocational Education; Mrs. Charles W. Sewell, national director of home and community work, American Farm Bureau Federation; Willis A. Sutton, president, National Education Association; L. A. Wilson, director of vocational education for New York State; George P. Hambrecht, director of vocational education for Wisconsin; R. L. Cooley, director of vocational education, Milwaukee; C. E. Rakestraw, regional agent, Federal Board for Vocational Education; Henry Klonower, director of the teacher bureau, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction; C. H. Lane, chief of the agricultural educational service, Federal Board for Vocational Education; A. V. Miller, president, National Association of Agricultural Instructors, and George S. Sanders, supervisor of trade and industrial education for Arizona.

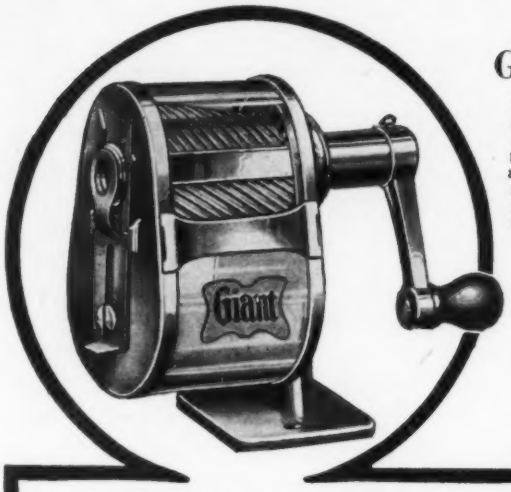
Ohio Educators to Meet in Columbus

Speakers of both national and international note will address the Eleventh Annual Ohio State Educational Conference which will be held at Columbus, April 9, 10 and 11. Charles Davila, ambassador from Chile, Michael West, principal, Teachers College, Dacca, India, and Newton D. Baker are among the more than one hundred speakers scheduled to participate in the program this year. An attendance of 6,000 is anticipated.

A section for guidance counselors will be added, making a total of thirty-six sectional divisions. These group meetings are provided to care for the varied interests of those in attendance.

One or more meetings have been arranged for the following sections: adult education; attendance supervisors; school nurses and visiting teachers; biological science; city superintendents; clinical psychology; English; geography; guidance counselors; higher education; high school principals; history; kindergarten and primary teachers; Latin; mathematics; modern language; music; nonbiological science; parent-teacher association; physical education; commercial education; county superintendents; educational and intelligence tests; elementary principals; elementary teachers; home economics; industrial and vocational education; journalism; junior high school principals; religious education; school business officials; school librarians; special education; teacher training; village and consolidated school superintendents; visual education.

All meetings will focus upon the conference keynote, "Individuality Through Guidance."



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In the Educational Field

JAMES H. FASSETT, former superintendent of schools, Nashua, N. H., where he served for more than twenty-five years, died recently in an automobile accident. Since his resignation in 1920 he had been living in the South.

MARVIN GORDON NEAL, dean, school of education, University of Missouri, succeeds FREDERICK J. KELLY as president of the University of Idaho.

DR. HARLAN H. HORNER, who has been editor of *New York State Education* and executive secretary of the state teachers' association for the last seven years, has resigned to become director of state college education in the New York State Education Department.

HAROLD F. STUDWELL has been appointed superintendent of schools, District No. 19, Nassau County, N. Y., following the establishment of a village superintendency there.

LORENZO E. MOULTON, for the last twenty years principal, Edward Little High School, Auburn, Me., died recently.

GALEN B. SARGENT is the new assistant superintendent at South Bend, Ind., succeeding E. D. CLINE who has been named superintendent of schools, Dubuque, Iowa.

JAMES J. O'REGAN, principal, Forsythe High School, Manhattan, New York City, died recently. MR. O'REGAN had been connected with the New York City public school system for more than forty years.

LOYAL F. HALL, principal, Center Avenue and Institute Hill schools, Butler, Pa., has resigned after a career of more than forty years with the Butler schools. JANE L. STANLEY has been named as his successor.

THE REV. ARTHUR J. BREEN, professor and head of the department of education, Columbia College, Dubuque, Iowa, has been appointed dean of the college.

M. W. LONGMAN, Muskegon, Mich., is the newly elected superintendent of schools, Newburgh, N. Y.

F. L. CLOUD is the new principal of Frankford High School, Philadelphia.

ARTHUR LAMPE, Virginia, Minn., has succeeded C. H. BARNES as superintendent of education, St. Louis County, Minn., who recently retired.

HARRY HAYNES BURNHAM, principal, Biddeford High School, Providence, R. I., died recently following a heart attack. MR. BURNHAM had been connected with the Biddeford High School for thirty-five years, either as an instructor or as the guiding head.

WILLIAM THANE PECK, principal, Classical High School, Providence, R. I., for more than a half century, has resigned, his resignation to become effective at the close of the school year.

HARRIS HART, state superintendent of public instruction for Virginia for the last twelve years, has resigned and SIDNEY B. HALL, Norfolk, has been named to succeed him.

JAMES L. HANLEY has resigned as superintendent of schools, Central Falls, R. I., to become principal, Bridgham Street Junior High School, Providence, R. I.

CHARLES V. RYON has retired as principal of District 24, Valley Stream, Nassau County, N. Y. Mr. Ryon's retirement ends a continuous service of seventy-three years by him and his father, the late Charles M. Ryon, formerly superintendent of schools, Kingston.

ELLA BOYCE KIRK, said to have been the first woman superintendent of schools in the United States, died recently. She held that position at Bradford, Pa.

KATHARINE A. MORTON has been reelected superintendent of public instruction for Wyoming.

MILO H. STUART, principal, Arsenal Technical High School, and WILLIAM A. HACKER, social service director, have been appointed assistant superintendents in the school system of Indianapolis, Ind., on the recommendation of PAUL C. STETSON, superintendent. DEWITT S. MORGAN will succeed MR. STUART.

FRANK B. HEGE is the new principal of Columbia High School, Columbia, Pa.

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MERCUROCHROME DOES NOT IRRITATE, BURN OR INJURE TISSUE

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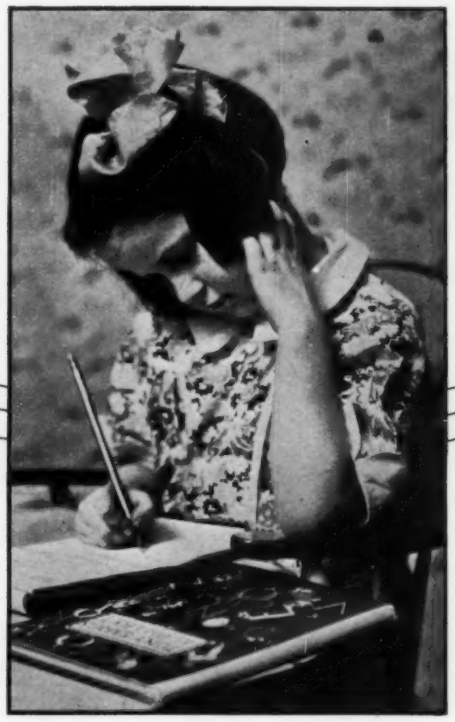
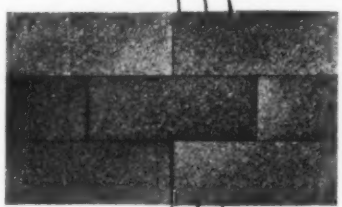
THAT "Noise Fog" MEANS AFTERNOON FATIGUE

This little girl is tired. All day she has been listening to her teacher through a "noise fog" made up of all the unwanted sounds that echo through schools. Marching feet, lunchroom clatter, even the voice of the teacher in the next room distracts her mind, makes it hard to study.



This little girl enjoys school work. There is no "noise fog" in this classroom. Her school has cork-quieted walls and ceilings. She isn't tired at 2 o'clock. All annoying schoolroom sounds are muffled. It is easy for her to study, for her mind is not hampered by distracting noise.



WALLS and ceilings protected with panels of Armstrong's Corkoustic (shown at left) absorb sound. Schoolrooms and corridors are transformed into quiet places of study, free from "noise fog."

The rich brown of the cork also adds to this atmosphere of quiet dignity, blending well with almost every type of school decoration. If desired, colors and designs can be secured with cold-water paints and stencils.

Another property of Corkoustic that makes its use particularly desirable in schools is the fact that cork is a highly efficient insulating material. It costs less to maintain a comfortable temperature in cork-lined rooms, for loss of heat through walls and ceilings is greatly reduced.

Free Information to Educators

A copy of the book, "Acoustical Correction" is available to every school-board and school superintendent. Send for your copy. There is no charge for this book of facts about sound and sound-quieting. Address Armstrong Cork and Insulation Co., 939 Concord St., Lancaster, Penna.

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Armstrong's Corkoustic

the sound-quieting and acoustical treatment for schools

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In the February Issue

In the opening article in February, Frank Cody, superintendent of schools, Detroit, will give his views on the various aspects of professionalizing teaching.

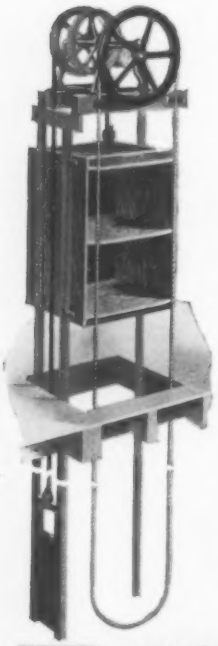
The issue will contain a complete program and full details of the forthcoming Department of Superintendence meeting in Detroit, as well as a list of the firms having exhibits at the meeting.

In the sixth and concluding article of the series on the policy makers of American schools, our readers will find that Mr. McAndrew considers the superintendent the chief policy maker and that the future of education depends on him.

For the department of rural education, Mrs. Henshall will tell of the development of rural school libraries in California and will offer suggestions for such activities in other states.

The new school at McGregor, Iowa, will be described and illustrated by the architect, Oren Thomas, of Proudfoot, Rawson, Souers and Thomas, Des Moines, Iowa.

The cost sometimes is more—BUT you will not be troubled with reports that "the dumb waiter is out of order" if you will



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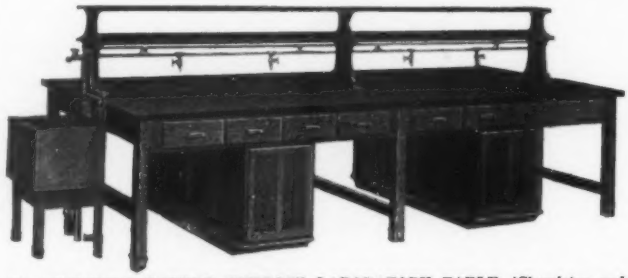

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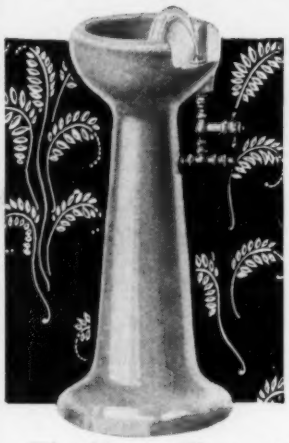

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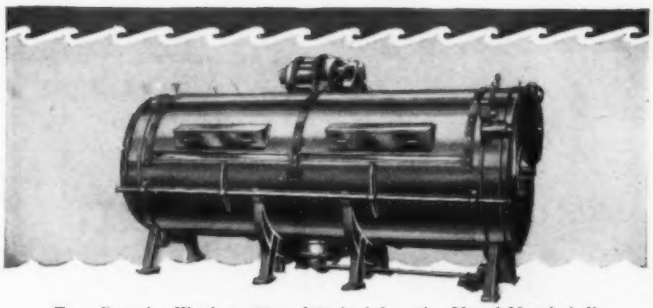

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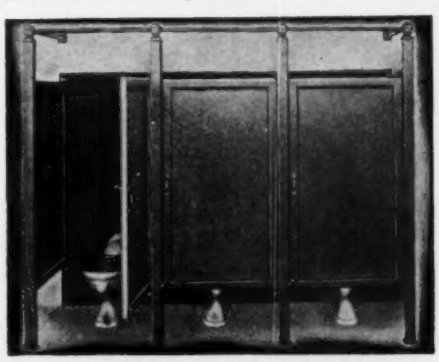

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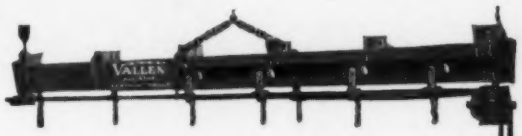

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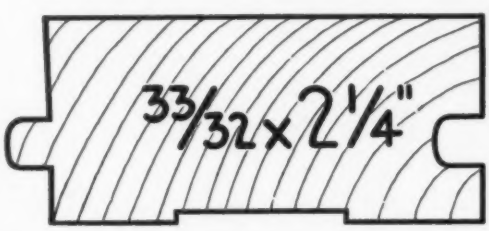

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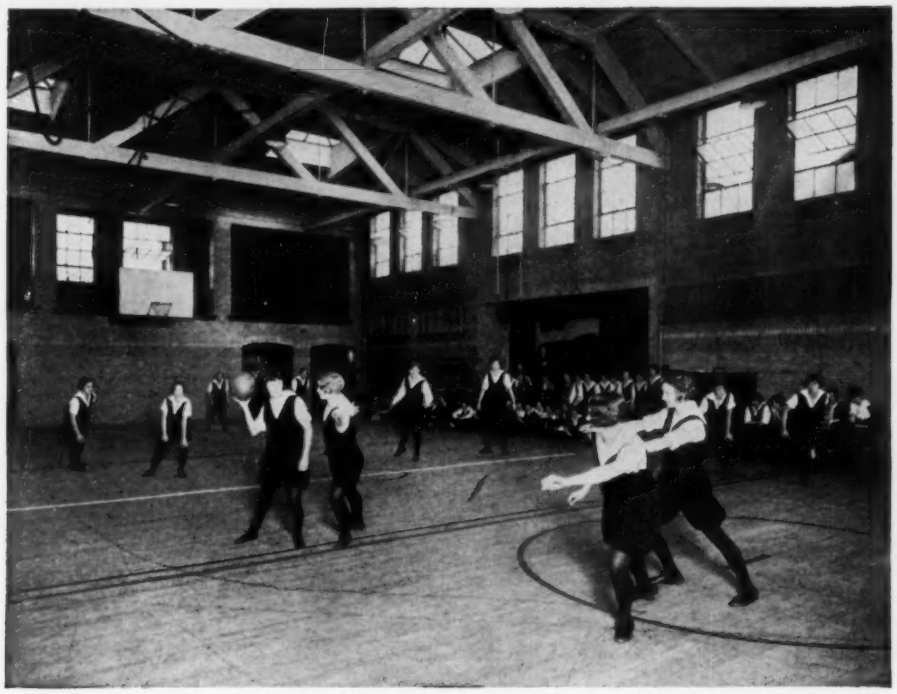

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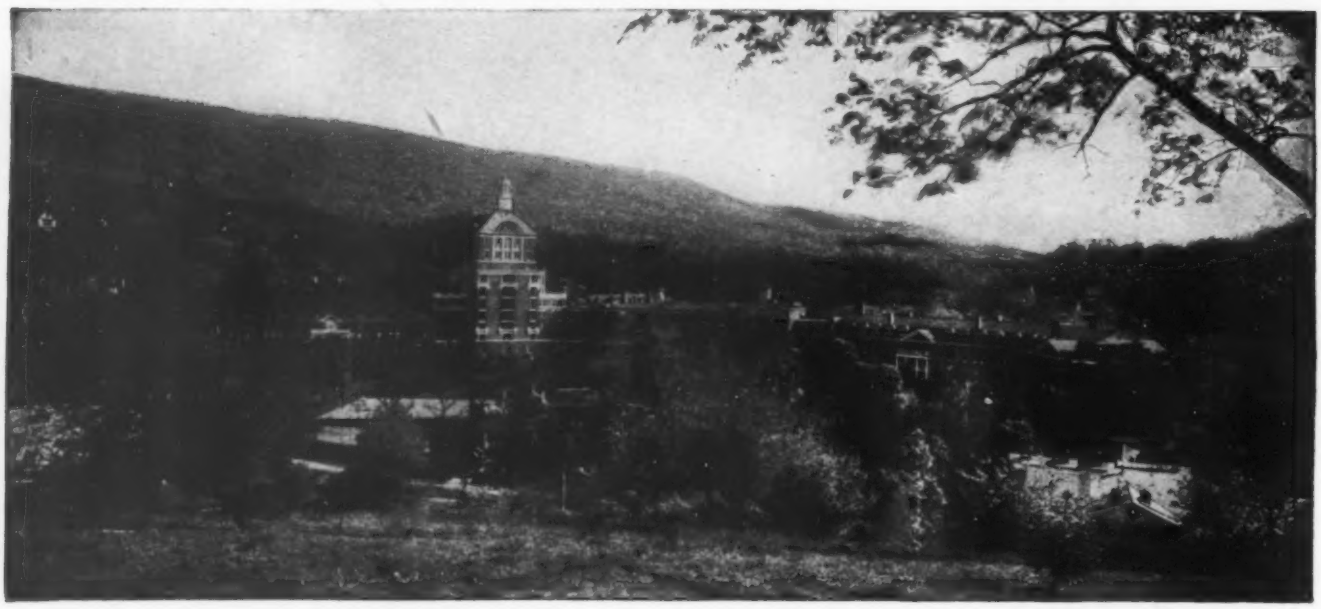

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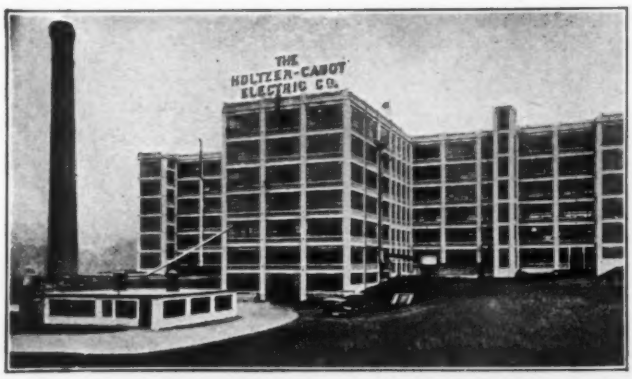

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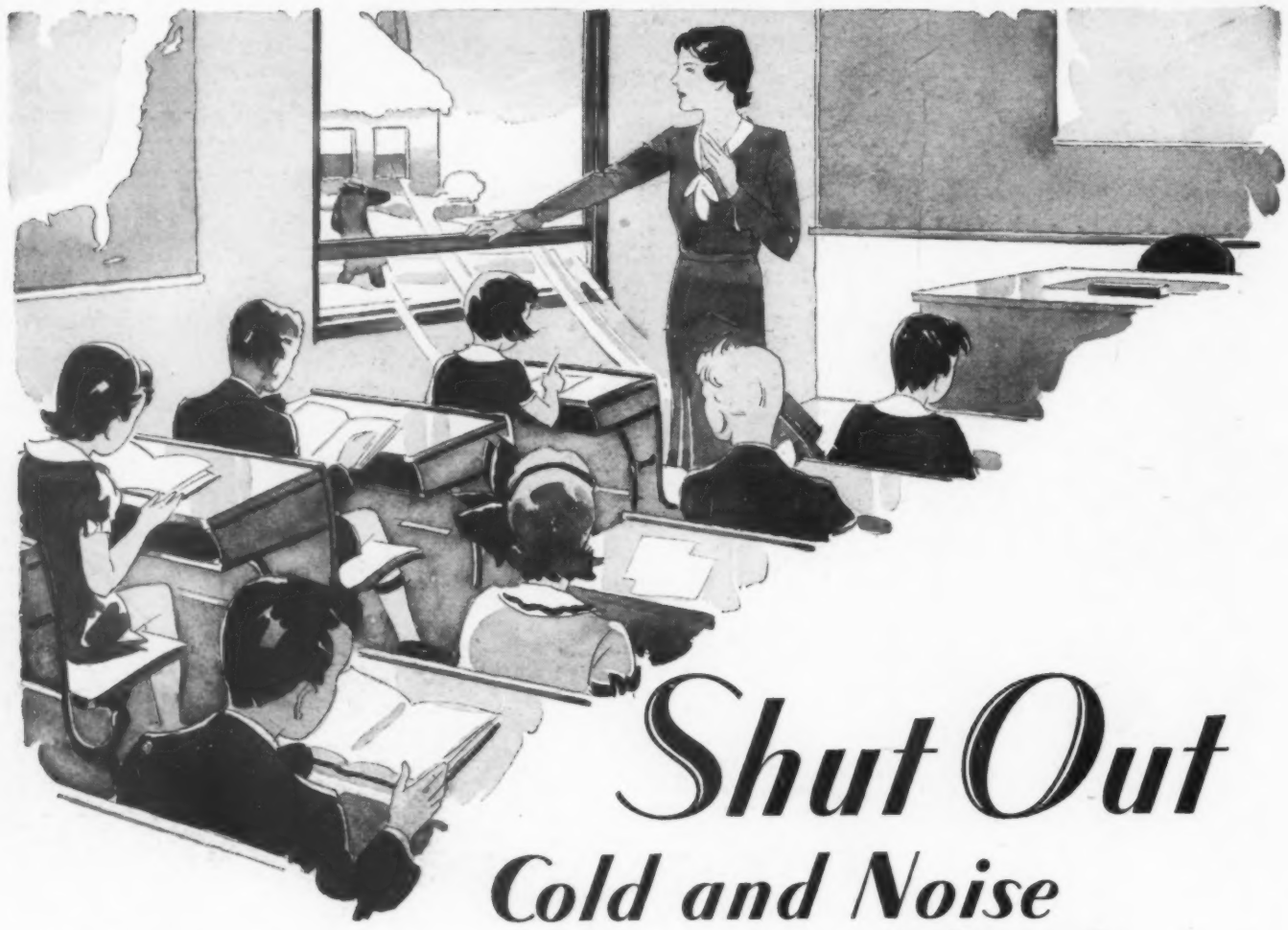

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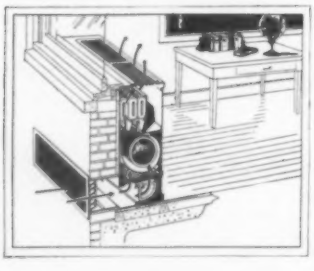

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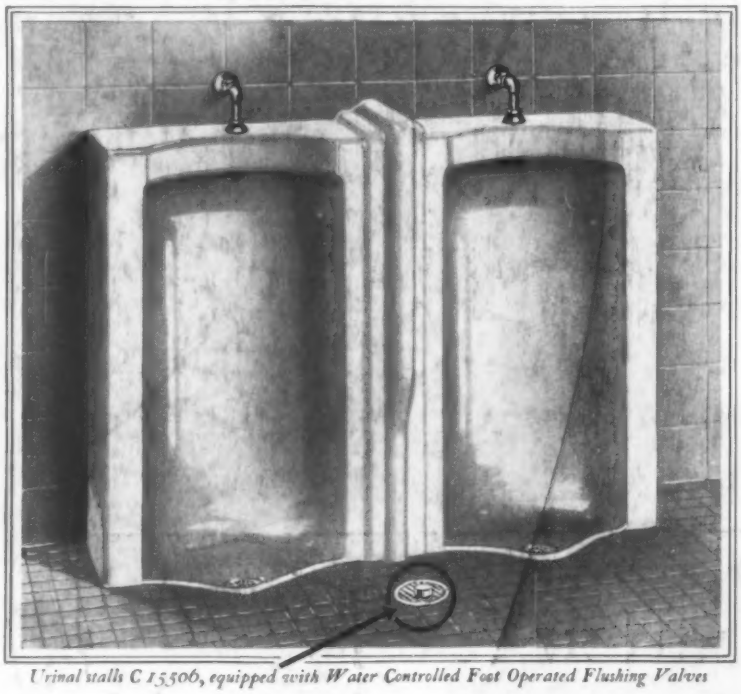

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Batteries of two urinals may be installed with the flushing button in the floor between. Batteries of three may have two buttons. In each case, the self-closing auxiliary floor valves connect with one water controlled flushing valve that serves all of the urinals in the battery.

The self-closing auxiliary valves, sure and positive in action, are located in a cast iron box built into the floor, water tight and protected from all chance of abuse. They can be removed, repaired or replaced without disturbing the floor.

Through the whole line of Crane plumbing and heating equipment for schools, the same ingenious working out of every detail, in the light of knowledge of conditions to be met, is found. Crane plumbing specialists will gladly work with your architect and building committee to select advantageous, dependable, economical materials exactly suited to your school's needs. Call on them.

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